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THE

MONTHLY CHRONICLE,

OF

EVENTS, DISCOVERIES, IMPROVEMENTS,
AND OPINIONS.

INTENDED

FOR THE POPULAR DIFFUSION OF USEFUL KNOWLEDGE, AND AN AUTHENTIC RECORD OF FACTS
FOR FUTURE REFERENCE.

ILLUSTRATED WITH MAPS AND DRAWINGS.

VOL III.

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THE MONTHLY CHRONICLE.

JANUARY, 1842.

ARTICLE I.

RECENT IMPROVEMENTS IN FRENCH NATIONAL INSTRUCTION.

IN presenting this subject to the attention of our readers, we need offer no apology or explanation of our motives. Popular instruction is too necessarily and closely connected with all free government, ever to be neglected by those in whom that excites an interest ; and the citizens of the United States, particularly those of New England, have a deep concern in the experiments instituted in other lands, as there is always a hope, that the results may be applicable or useful in their own. With such views, we should be happy to give an account of the general system of instruction in France, as existing at the present time ; that system bears, as much as any, the marks of the labor of great men. Such an attempt, however, would be quite impracticable within the limits of this journal ; to a certain degree, indeed, inconsistent with its object. The main features of the system may readily be found elsewhere. We propose, therefore, at present, to confine ourselves to the innovations more recently introduced by the agency of M. Victor Cousin, and the advances under M. Villemain.

The French system of education, as it now exists, is in a great measure the result of pure theory, having been framed by the various governments which have ruled France during the present century. It presents, therefore, some very advantageous points of view to the student, who is curious on methods of education. It is less trammelled with peculiar ancient customs, which, from the nature of the case, would have been suitable only to the place where they had their origin ; and, although this very circumstance may sometimes prove an

evil to the institutions of instruction, placing them, as it does, more immediately under the influence of the experiments of every new theorizer, and depriving them of any favorable influence from ancient association, it gives a much more ready insight into their operations. The simple machine is much more readily understood than that which is more complex in its arrangement, though this, indeed, may produce a more beautiful fabric. The agency of the French system is easily seen, also, as its operations are constantly directed by one responsible head; for the French government of the present time, like most of the later constitutional governments, numbers among its cabinet ministers, one of public instruction.

The very idea of this office is a pleasant one to the liberal mind. That arrangements of such importance as these, which belong to a country's system of education, should, instead of being left to the tardy care of some person hardly interested in their operation, be intrusted to an officer with no other duty in charge, although a very simple plan, is not the less gratifying when we find it in actual operation. There will always be some men deeply interested in the welfare of the rising generations, and no less skilled than interested in the proper means to be taken to attain it. To such men, an appointment to such an office involves a pleasing task, while to their countrymen the advantage is incalculable. Under their charge, no schools will languish. A bad system, the worst of systems, with watchful attention and management, is better than the best of systems with none. The importance and utility of the office, indeed, cannot be better illustrated than by a reference to those who have held it in France. Montalivet, Salvandy, the Duke de Broglie, Girod de l'Ain, and Pelet de la Lozere, Villemain, Guizot, and Cousin, have at different times been appointed ministers of instruction, under the government of July, which has gained itself great credit by supporting itself by such men.

We are at present concerned only with the agency of M. Cousin during his recent tenure of office, as a member of the Thiers ministry, during a period of hardly eight months, [see *Mon. Chron.* vol. i. pp. 58, 515.] His general reputation, as a philosopher, and his works on the system of public instruction in parts of Germany, particularly in Prussia, on that of Holland, and on the Normal School,* were strong proofs of his fitness for so important a station. He does not, indeed, need any commendation of ours. The strong common sense with which he collected and displayed the facts contained in the published volumes which we have mentioned, are well

* *De l'Instruction publique dans quelques pays de l'Allemagne et particulièrement en Prusse.* 2 vols. 8vo. *De l'Instruction publique en Hollande.* 1 vol. 8vo. *Ecole Normale.* 1 vol. 8vo.

known, and that shown in his arrangements for carrying into effect his own already matured plans, will, we hope, be seen in the progress of this article. He was, indeed, more favorably situated than most learned men generally are, who have a favorite object in view. As we have said, the French system of instruction is not yet so consolidated as not to admit of ready alteration; and a man with the reputation, and in the situation of M. Cousin, has almost unlimited power in carrying his amendments into effect. Like all other ministers, he has to extort appropriations from the Chambers, but in other respects he has, in great measure, the power to take his own course. M. Cousin, although a theorist, was not such a theorist that he could not put schemes in practice. We give an instance of the ease with which he could effect an important reform, which will serve at the same time as an illustration of the judicious manner with which he viewed the different branches of study, and the watchful eye which he kept upon them. Having observed a defect in the organization of the department of law, he addressed the following

Report to the King.

“SIRE — Permit me to propose to your Majesty a remedy for a deficiency in the instruction of law.

“When young students enter our schools, jurisprudence is to them a new country, of whose geography and language they are alike ignorant. They at once turn their attention to the civil and the Roman law, without fully comprehending what place in juridical science these branches hold, and in consequence they are easily disgusted by their dryness, or are unfitted for general views by their constant examination of details. Such a method of instruction is very unfavorable to valuable or profound study.

“For some time, Sire, those who have understood the case, have wished for a preliminary course, which should have for its object to introduce, in some degree, the young student, into the labyrinth of jurisprudence; which should give a general view of the branches of juridical science; should mark the distinct and special object of each of them, and at the same time their close dependence, and the intimate bond which unites them: — a course which should establish the general method to be followed in the study of law, with the particular modifications suitable for every branch of it; a course, in fine, which should point out the important works which have marked the progress of the science. Such a course would raise the science of law in the eyes of young men, by the character of unity which it would impress upon it, and would exercise a happy influence on the labor of pupils, and their intellectual and moral developement.”

The report proceeds to say, that the new chair is needed principally in the faculty of Paris, and to give the details of its proposed establishment there. A royal ordinance was at once issued, authorizing and ordering the establishment, and thus completing the whole transaction.

We have alluded to this particular instance to show the ease with which, under the organization of these affairs in France, the minister may carry his projects into effect, and the readiness, consequently, with which we may trace the operations of the minister in these respects. We would call attention to the document, also, as illustrative of the liberal, open, and sensible style of thought and action of M. Cousin. In the review which we propose to make of his amendments to the arrangements for public instruction, we shall meet with many documents quite as striking. We shall, of course, rely on none but the best authorities. A paper, written by himself, published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and the official accounts of his various proceedings, with the reports of the examinations of some of the principal French colleges during his administration, will be our sources of information.

In his own article, M. Cousin speaks of the courses of instruction in France under the three heads of primary, secondary, and superior, the arrangement, indeed, under which they were established, and are kept in action. We shall, of course, speak of them in the same view. He avows, in his own account of his ministry, that during its passage he effected comparatively little for the primary instruction. By this avowal, the reader ought only to understand, that he made few changes in its system, and this is by no means singular, as that system was established in 1833, under his own advice. He certainly was not wanting in a zealous supervision of the primary instruction, and a watchful care for whatever might promote its interest. His principal action with respect to it was to secure a firm and just severity on the part of the boards who examined the candidates for instructorships; and, with the same view, to promote the interests of the primary Normal schools, and to raise, so far as was in his power, the consideration in which the instructors were held in the community.

For what he calls the superior primary schools, he took more earnest and active measures. "The superior primary schools," says he, "were the newest part of the law of 1833. I was as desirous as any one to establish a course of instruction between the elementary schools as they were under the restoration, and our colleges.

"In France, said I, in 1831, in my report to the minister of public instruction on Prussia, the primary instruction is comparatively trifling, and there is nothing between this and the instruction of our

colleges, whence it follows, that every father, even in the lower part of the bourgeoisie, who has the honorable wish to give a respectable education to his children, has no other means to do so than by sending them to college. Two grave inconveniences result from this course. In general, these young men, who feel that they are not destined to an elevated career, attend but little to their studies; and when, after indifferent success, they return at the age of eighteen years into the occupation and manner of life to which their family is accustomed, as nothing in their ordinary life recalls to them or continues their past studies, a few years efface the little classical knowledge which they have acquired. Often, also, these young men contract at college associations and tastes which render it difficult and almost impossible to them to return into the humble career of their fathers, and hence arises a race of restless men, who are dissatisfied with their position, enemies of a social arrangement where they do not find their place, and ready to throw themselves, with some attainments, with more or less real talent, and an unbridled ambition, into any of the paths of servility or revolt. . . .

“Our colleges ought, indeed, to be open to all who can pay their charges; but we need not indiscreetly call to them the inferior classes, and the proper course is, to raise intermediate establishments between the primary schools and colleges. . . .

“The elementary schools ought to be uniform, for they represent, and are intended to nourish and strengthen, the national unity, and, in general, it is not well to pass the limit of the law providing for the instruction in the elementary department; but it is not so with a bourgeoisie school, for this is intended for an entirely different class, and it is, therefore, natural that it should be raised or lowered in proportion to the importance of the town in which it is placed. Thus the bourgeoisie scholars in Prussia are of entirely different ranks, varying from the minimum fixed by law to the level of the gymnasia. The German bourgeoisie schools, although somewhat inferior to our common colleges in classical and scientific instruction, are incomparably superior to them, to speak generally, in instruction in religion, geography, history, modern languages, music, design, and national literature. Unless I am mistaken, it is of the greatest importance to create in France bourgeoisie schools, whose developement may be varied to any extent, and to remodel some of our colleges of communes with this view.

“Such was the importance which, in 1831, I attached to the foundation of an intermediate instruction between our popular schools and colleges. Every one, however, was not of this opinion; but I ought to thank M. Guizot for having planted in the law (of 1833) a germ, which time and patience might bring to maturity.”

In 1833, however, nothing more was done than to plant this germ. No sooner, however, had M. Cousin joined the cabinet of M. Thiers, than he hastened to carry these views into execution. He proposed to establish model schools at Paris, Lyons, Bourdeaux, Rouen, Marseilles, Strasburg, Nantes, Caen, Orleans, and Lille. Local difficulties prevented the carrying out of his plans, excepting in Paris and Caen ; he was so satisfied with his success there, however, that he felt that those schools would serve as models for others through the country, and transmitted in different quarters explanations of their organization. So far as a foreigner can understand the nature of arrangements made for what were purely French institutions, the plans seem to have been admirably laid, and well adapted to their valuable purpose.

The reader ought not to infer, from the extract which we have just made from M. Cousin, that he is adverse to a liberal system of classical education. He only dissents to the value of that education in the particular instance to which he alludes, and the quotation which we have made is valuable and singular, as showing under what different circumstances public instruction operates in France, from those which influence it in this country. In several passages, some of which our readers will see in this article, he takes occasion to show his respect for classical acquisitions, and full appreciation of their advantages.

We cannot but regret that he was not able to complete his arrangements for intermediate instruction between the elementary and secondary schools. The passages we have cited contain his own general views. We proceed at once to a view of his efforts in reference to the secondary establishments, which, from peculiar circumstances, engaged his close attention.

Public opinion in France had demanded, and the charter of 1830 promised, freedom from the public monopoly of education, (*liberté d'enseignement* ;) some arrangement, that is, by which private instructors might compete with the institutions established by the state, and yet all the pupils might have the advantages granted to the university, which, it will be remembered, embraces all the public courses of instruction. Difficulties of a serious nature had always interfered with the plans for this purpose, and the purposes of the charter had never been fully carried out. The regulations to which M. Cousin proposed to submit the private secondary schools, in conjunction with those under which they had before been placed, will appear best in his own language.

"1st. Besides the moral and literary qualifications required of every person who desires to establish a secondary private school, the provision has been, that a special authority from the minister, grant-

ed in royal council, is necessary ; this authority to be renewed when the master of the establishment wished to remove it from one place to another, while it could be withdrawn after an administrative examination, and by a decision of the council and minister, without any intervention of the ordinary justice of the district. I saw that such a state of things ought not to continue, that this special authorization ought to be suppressed, that a judgment of the ordinary justice of the district was necessary to close an existing establishment, and that the state, the natural guardian of the education of its youth, should be satisfied with the literary and moral qualifications required in the first instance, with the permanent right of inspection, and that of giving up to the courts any suspected master. Such were the provisions of the law of 1833, with reference to primary private schools, and I thought them applicable to establishments for secondary instruction.

"2nd. According to the laws now in force, the imperial decrees of 1808 and 1811, every private establishment is obliged to conduct its pupils to a college of the commune, or one of the royal colleges near him, and on this condition alone can his pupils present themselves for the baccalaureate of letters, the entry to every liberal career. All young persons are consequently obliged to attend the state institutions ; the only exception is in favor of paternal rights ; a certificate of domestic study in the house of the father being the only substitute for a certificate of collegiate studies. My intention was, conformably to public opinion, to extend these paternal rights, and to give a father permission to allow his son to prosecute his studies in any legally authorized public establishment, which enjoyed his confidence, without binding all children to attend a college ; so that, of course, every private establishment was authorized to fit for the examination for bachelor of letters.

"This examination, with the moral and literary qualifications, the right of inspection, and that of prosecution in the courts, is the last resource of society, its last defence, but at the same time an unassailable defence, against imperfect private establishments. They are ruined if their pupils, on presentation to examination for the degree of bachelor of letters, do not attain it."

Before these arrangements could be fully effected, a difficulty had to be surmounted, arising from the existing constitution of the ecclesiastical and laical private schools, the former of which had been placed on a peculiar foundation by some of the edicts of the restoration. M. Cousin, however, was in a fair way to triumph over these obstacles, his bill was approved by some of the principal ecclesiastics, had passed through the chamber of peers, and was favorably received by the deputies, when, on the Oriental question, M. Thiers's ministry was dissolved, and M. Cousin's hopes for this project, as those for his

intermediary schools were, for the time, blighted. He had, meanwhile, done all in his power to prepare the university to meet the private competition to which it would be exposed. He had increased somewhat the number of royal colleges, and proposed to continue to do so, and he took skilful and thorough measures to perfect the systems of study in the existing institutions.

The first of all these improvements, and the one which he considered most indispensable, was the reform of the degree of bachelor of letters. In putting all private institutions upon a free footing, and giving them the right to prepare for the examination of the baccalaureate, the first thing to be done was to elevate and establish this examination in a proper manner. The studies having been furnished, they must be reviewed, and judged. As there was a passage to be made from the college to a higher instruction and to society, no one should be allowed to make it without displaying the proper capacity. In the first place, the trial for the baccalaureate was to be made uniform from one end of France to the other. Until the present time, except in philosophy, the subjects were different in all the different academies. Now, the examination was made exactly the same every where, at the same time that it was simplified and made more strict. It was made more perfect, by the introduction of an exercise in composition; a Latin version, in which every candidate could exhibit his knowledge of the Latin as well as the French language, giving evidence that he at least knew how to write them correctly. The examination was made more simple by leaving off a vast number of literary, historical, and geographical details, in which the memory was improved at the expense of the understanding. For in the formation of the understanding, instruction itself is only the means, the education of the understanding is the end. A new exercise was introduced, the grammatical and literary explanation of the French classics. And finally, that there might be no suspicion of partiality in the judgments of the examining committees, it was ordered, that in all the academies where there was no literary faculty, the examination should take place not in the lecture-rooms of the college, but in public, in the Academy itself, the censors and provisors, however, not making a part of the committees. Thus arranged, the trial for the baccalaureate acquired an undisputed authority, and society was effectually guarded from the faults and omissions of private education.

With the same object, another of his prominent measures was the division of the department of the sciences in the colleges, into the two heads of natural or physical, and mathematical science, a division which promoted the thorough study of each, and which was but a return to a plan formerly pursued, in the time of Napoleon. This

measure was followed up by a new arrangement of the order of studies, which, although rather more detailed than most of the passages we have quoted from M. Cousin, has connected with it so many judicious considerations, that we prefer to give it in his own language. "For a long time," he says, "innovations had been made in the order of study, constantly changing and modified every year, with which no one has as yet been satisfied, under the idea of mingling instruction in the sciences with that of letters, from the beginning to the end of the course of study. The latest attempt joins natural history to the sixth class, arithmetic and geometry to the fifth, fourth, and third, chemistry to the second, cosmogony to the rhetoric class, &c., giving to this additional instruction the least time possible. No success followed this arrangement, and but little interest was excited on the part of either teachers or pupils, and the short time devoted to the sciences, and which served but little purpose, was a considerable disadvantage to the instruction in literature, while it abridged the time devoted to that purpose. I do not say that this union had not some accessory advantages, but in every thing which is not accessory, the principal point must be taken into consideration, and the principal point here, is the immense inconvenience of mixing every thing in the heads of young people, and of weakening their powers by dividing them over a too large number of different objects. What is the design of a college? It is not to give a certain dose of instruction. No. The design of the college, on the contrary, is general and elevated; it is nothing less, as I have already said, than the education of the understanding, by the aid of different kinds of teaching properly arranged, according to the strength and wants of every age. Hence the great maxim, which is drawn from a knowledge of the human mind and universal experience, that letters should come before the sciences, for the good of both, and for the common good of a solid and valuable cultivation of the understanding. When letters, by teaching the languages and history, have cultivated at the same time the mind, heart, and imagination, when they have formed the man, it is for the sciences to finish the work, by calling in the assistance of philosophy. I speak of the sciences taken seriously, for all instruction which is not serious is not only useless, but dangerous; it weakens the mind and renders it effeminate; it is a bad apprenticeship for life; it gives rise to the prejudice, that any thing can be acquired with but little trouble, which is radically false. For this reason I suppressed, from the sixth to the rhetorical class, all the small and trifling instruction in natural history, chemistry, and geometry, and I united them and placed them after rhetoric, in the philosophical year, according to the practice which was universal in France until 1789, and according to the plan of study in the empire as it was followed in my

time. Meantime, I have allowed the faculty to establish free courses of mathematics from the sixth to the rhetorical, for the few pupils who have not the baccalaureate of letters in view, (that is to say, the complete and regular college education,) but that of the special schools, military and other, and who consequently have generally no need of instruction in rhetoric or philosophy, but require a more exact scientific instruction, before reaching the more abstruse instructions which begin at the end of the rhetorical course. Those who desire it follow these preparatory courses; they are not imposed on any one, and do not injure the general plan of study, which is founded on the nature of things, and at the same time on experience and an elevated philosophy."

To this arrangement he added a more complete study of the modern languages than had before been in vogue. The whole plan appears to be a decided improvement. We cannot, of course, fully understand its operation without a fuller view than we can have of the action of the French colleges. An able French journal, however, speaks of it in such terms as these, after alluding in general to the impropriety of the early study of scientific studies:

"Not that we cannot conceive of a natural history adapted to the young, but this is to be taught best at home, in a walk, and with the assistance of some lectures. It continually recalls the child to the idea of God, by showing him God's creatures, but it shows him these creatures living, colored, gentle; it does not take the trouble to classify or arrange them, or recognize them by the assistance of certain scientific characters, which are better for science, because they are prominent, and belong more to species and genus than to the individual. Science is pleased with common characters; the child, by the characteristics of each individual. Now God is not less visible in the infinite variety of characteristics of each individual, than in the analogy and identity of common characters, which determine the species. Unfortunately this natural history, so familiar and agreeable, which we all teach our children without hesitation, is not taught in our colleges. When natural history is introduced in the colleges, it is as a science; that is to say, in spite of itself, methodical, barren, dry, in fact opposed to the very spirit of children. One cannot ask a professor of natural history, a member of the Academy of Sciences, to return to the patriarchal simplicity of Rollin. Actual science is his imperial mistress, and it does not permit him to cut off any thing from his apparatus of rigorous classification. He classifies, characterises, determines the species and genera. For children, all this science is not equal to Fontaine's fables. Fontaine's fables are for them the best lesson in natural history.

"The child does not understand any thing of all the science which

is taught him, but he can learn by rote. The memory of children is pliant and tractable; it bends to any force which is applied to it. The child retains the most dry nomenclature. But this excessive developement of the memory injures the developement of intelligence, and the child contracts the fatal habit of learning without understanding; that is to say, of eating without digesting. This does not happen with strong and vigorous spirits, but with parrots, who have the appearance of knowing. This diminishes the quality of common sense of the country, and does not diminish the pretension. To repeat things is to know them;—it, at least, appears so to many people.

“The minister of public instruction, in leaving out natural history from the sixth number of topics of instruction, has rendered a service, we think, to healthy study. The reform did not stop at the sixth. All the scientific course annexed to the Latin classes, geometry, mathematics, chemistry, and cosmography, are equally retrenched. We are convinced that this measure will have a good effect; it will be advantageous to the classical studies. It is better that the minds of young people shall not be forced to disperse over too many objects at once.”

From all this the reader will readily see how constant were M. Cousin's exertions for the improvement of the secondary schools. This was not, however, the end of his labor. He adopted a most systematic course of proceeding to raise the superior instruction from the difficulties which attended it; the best administration could not supply the defects of its organization. On his accession, the faculties in the institutions for the superior instruction had the power of conferring the degrees; this was their principal charge, and they performed it satisfactorily, and with propriety and justice. But the number of faculties in the different branches was arbitrary, and they were scattered over the different parts of the country without any definite system. The choice of professors in the different faculties was regulated by different principles, and was thus open to censure, and in consequence of these defects there was no emulation among the students. To remedy all these evils, M. Cousin began to act on a definite plan, the principles of which he had before laid down in his published works. As before, we give his own account of his conduct.

“The general principles to which all my acts relative to superior instruction conform, are these:—

“Firstly. In conformity to what I have constantly urged in my works, I proposed to substitute gradually, according to the practice of the whole world, a system of grand scientific centres, where the faculties of every branch of science could be united, for a few separated

faculties, languishing and unsupported, because situated in so many different places. I am perfectly willing to avow, that, although I admire as much as any one the beautiful unity of opinion in France, I do not think that this unity would be endangered, even if there could be life out of Paris. To speak only of public instruction : — I am satisfied that there can be established, in certain towns, central fires, which, by throwing their rays around them, may enlighten and vivify the great provinces to the advantage of the civilization of the whole of France. For example : I was desirous of making a sort of Breton University at Rennes. There was already at Rennes a faculty of law, and one of literature. I asked of the chamber of deputies the necessary funds to establish there also a faculty of science, and one of medicine, for all the western departments. The chamber voted the faculty of science readily, and I lost no time in establishing it, and placing there a select body of men. The project for a faculty of medicine was not discussed, and I should have brought it forward again this session. I should have presented it to the chamber of deputies, supported on one side by the order which places on a solid foundation the secondary schools of medicine, which they could not have accused me of wishing to destroy ; on the other, by the strongly expressed wishes of all Brittany, except the town of Nantes. The chamber of peers, through the organ of M. de Gérando, expressed itself clearly with regard to this ; it protested as soon as possible against a faculty of medicine at Rennes, and we should have seen if, in the chamber of deputies, little local interests would have been superior to national views, to universal experience, to the opinion of the chamber of peers, and to the wants of all Brittany. In any event, the chamber would have been obliged itself to take the responsibility of rejecting this law, for I should not have hesitated to present it. I hope, at least, that the secondary medical school at Rennes will be excited by the scientific atmosphere which will be created by the faculty of science, and that thus there will be, in this intellectual capital of Brittany, together with one of the best colleges in the kingdom, and a great primary Normal school, four fine schools — of law, of letters, of science, and of medicine — where all the young and noble spirits of Brittany, aspiring to distinction, will come to prepare themselves. Crowds are not to be feared, for it is from crowds that superior men come forth, because it is in crowds alone that there is ardor, emulation, spirit. Four departments of Brittany out of five have voted subsidies for the future school of medicine, which the project which I once offered, promised to them. The town of Rennes entered into an engagement to devote a great academic building to the united faculties. Before quitting the ministry, I sent a considerable number of valuable books for the library of these faculties, and

particularly for the scientific faculty. At my request, my honorable friend, M. de Remusat, Minister for the Interior, ordered a bust of Descartes, the most illustrious son of Brittany, for the faculty of science at Rennes ; and I promised the deputies of Brittany, I promised myself, to go to Rennes to inaugurate the establishment of a Breton University ; at least, the foundations of the university are laid ; time, I hope, will do the rest.

“ What I have almost accomplished at Rennes for Brittany, I attempted at Caen for Normandy. Caen is evidently the intellectual capital of Normandy. It had formerly a university, which numbers men of merit. It would be easy to establish there a certain scientific and literary movement. There is a faculty of law, a faculty of letters, one of science, a secondary medical school, which the order of the 13th October, 1840, will still farther enlarge. My design was to transport thither the theological faculty from Rouen. The order for the transfer exists, signed by the king. A theological faculty at Rouen is a barren shoot. It is isolated ; it is not supported by a faculty of letters. Rouen is an admirable commercial town, but not a town for study, still less for ecclesiastical study. Nor has this faculty ever produced any result. It is entirely unknown ; and my desire to remove it was actually the means of teaching the inhabitants of Rouen of its existence. The courses did not go on ; the archbishop is opposed to it ; the dean voluntarily sent me his resignation. I found it literally dead ; I wished to renew it by removing it elsewhere. I offered to Rouen, instead of this insignificant faculty, a great intermediate school, which the law imposes upon the town, and which would be of incontestable use.

“ On the contrary, Caen is a town where a theological faculty would be perfectly well situated, on account of the general disposition and the spirit of the country, where piety is in great repute ; on account of the neighborhood of the three other faculties, which would furnish a magnificent audience to the religious preachers, whom I found eloquent and instructive. The rector of the Academy, the Abbé Daniel, took an interest in this business, and no one was more proper than he to arrange it skilfully. I hope that it will succeed. It will be a great advantage for all Normandy, which will thus have an university for itself.

“ I should have thus successively attempted to establish in the heart of France, several faculties, united together, sustaining and exciting each other, having their library, their pupils, their information in common.

“ Secondly. The basis of my system is the institution of *fellows* of the faculties, for the exclusive right of filling the places of the professors who are prevented from attending to their duties, and having the right to deliver a free course to the audience of the faculty, with

the consent of the dean and the ministry. The fellows are the living element of a faculty. I borrowed this great institution first from our faculties of medicine, then from the practice of Germany, where it produces admirable results. It existed, to a certain extent, in the faculties of law, for substitutes [*supplians*] are the true fellows. There is nothing wanting to them but the right to make additional courses. I have the honor of having introduced it for the first time in the faculties of letters and science. I was not satisfied with merely an order for this institution. I rendered the order effective by rules, and these rules I caused to be put into execution immediately. Examinations of candidates were held at Paris, and at Sorbonne, for the mathematical sciences, the physical, the natural, for letters, philosophy, history. From all points of France numerous candidates arrived, the select fellows of the college, the flower of the university. These examinations were presided over by the most eminent men, all members of the Institute, and high officers of public instruction. The éclat of these examinations converted the most incredulous, and the foundations of the new institution were laid by its own success. Twelve fellows of the faculty of letters and of science have been appointed this year. They are now at work in Paris, and the provinces. The fellows of the law faculty, on their part, have asked and obtained permission to deliver additional courses upon the important and neglected points of juridical science. If, then, we know how to make use of this institution, it will render in France the same service as in Germany. It will continually give life to the higher instruction, for there must be no mistake; in instruction as in war, you must depend only upon youth. At the end of fifteen or twenty years of teaching, I mean assiduous and successful teaching, a man is used up. He may have merit and usefulness still, but the sacred fire is wanting. It is necessary, therefore, to have always near a faculty, a certain number of young men, who shall represent motion as the old professors represent stability. These two elements are as necessary in a faculty as elsewhere. The fellows are not made, it is true, to please the old professors, who dread young rivals; but these young rivals will ripen with age, and will make, in their turn, titular professors with authority. They give at first to the young men a quick impulse, while waiting till they shall have acquired the right to restrain them.

“One of the future results of the institution of fellows of the faculties, appointed upon public examinations, will be the suppression of examinations for the titular professors in the two faculties of law and medicine. This suppression, which I myself demanded, which has been demanded by all impartial minds, was decreed in my own mind; but I could hardly put it into effect, but by a law, and this law I could not present to the chambers, till after the fellowship system

should have acquired all the popularity it deserves ; then it would have been evident that the ministry which had voluntarily established examinations for the fellowships would not wish to suppress those of the titular professorships, from a hatred to examinations in general. They are admirable for youth ; they are not suitable for ripe age, and it is necessary that a titular professor should have a certain age and a good reputation. Men of reputation shun examinations which appear below them ; they are not tempted to appear like suppliants before a tribunal, composed of judges where they do not always see equals, still less superiors. It is no longer necessary that a faculty should recruit itself without control ; for suppose a majority once composed of a faction, or of ordinary people, one cannot tell how far the choice may fall or wander, whilst a nomination of a faculty, assisted by another nomination, that of the Academy of the Institute, for example, in leaving to the choice of a minister a certain latitude, the necessary foundation of his responsibility, is infinitely more favorable to high appointments.

“ Thirdly. If the institution of the fellows gives vigor to instruction, that of the prizes of the faculties gives animation to the studies. In this I have again been guided by the example of the schools of medicine, and by the usage in Germany, confirmed by that of Holland. Even at this time two faculties of the law, those of Aix and Poitiers, have laid a foundation for some prizes, the expense of which has been provided for by the liberality of the department councils. From these isolated precedents I have drawn the principle of a general institution for all the faculties of law in the kingdom, and this institution, which was immediately put into operation, has immediately been productive of the best consequences. The distribution of these prizes has every where taken place with proper solemnity. Thanks to the pious munificence of an admirable mother, (Mad. Beaumont,) the prizes of the faculty of Paris are such as will give occasion for serious labors. If, during the first year, we have had such successful results, what may not be expected from the future ! The young people, who gain the prizes as licentiates, will be examined for the doctor's degree, since this examination and the diplomas which give access to it, will cost them nothing. Once being doctors, they will naturally present themselves as candidates for the doctor's prizes. Here, then, the young are spared several years of hard labor. It may be added, that to authorize still farther this useful innovation, the ministers of justice and finance have established wise privileges in favor of the laureates of the law school, so that this institution, which is but of yesterday, seems even now almost sacred.

“ The prizes in the faculties of literature and the sciences, consist in a relinquishment of a considerable part of the expenses of the exam-

inations and diplomas of the candidates who distinguish themselves in the trial for the licentiate and the doctor's degree.

"I will not dwell any longer on some measures which are allied to these. Thus, since the licentiates and the doctors in letters gain a new importance from the rewards which are appropriated to them, it was on that account more necessary to arrange these trials properly, and to watch over the results of them. From this arose the duty which has been imposed on all the faculties of science and letters, to address to the ministry a report on the different trials for the doctor's degree and that of the licentiate, and the examination of these reports in the royal council, which often form an occasion for observations from the council, which, being addressed to the faculties, serve to excite their zeal and their just severity. The same rule was applied to the doctors of laws. In all these examinations, the use of the Latin language has been abolished, even in those exercises relating to the Roman law. Finally, a course of general introduction to the history of the law has been established in all the schools for the pupils of the first year, — at Paris, by a special chair, elsewhere by the additional courses given by the fellows, or by a certain number of lessons, given as preparatory at the beginning of the course of civil law.

"For medicine, I think I have done it good service by securing to it, with moderate privileges, the future students of the secondary medical schools, which form the first degree of medical instruction, by making the schools of pharmacy come within the sphere of the university, and giving to these schools a common organization, which answers to the importance of their objects. These two ordinances have proved to the medical body what I should have ventured to do, if a longer time had been granted me."

This statement closes the account which we have to give of the changes introduced into the French system of instruction under M. Cousin's agency. As our readers are aware, he left office on the 21st of October, 1840, M. Villemain being his successor. Of the course taken by M. Villemain in reference to the important institutions over which he presides, we shall speak below. We should have been glad to give farther extracts from M. Cousin's own writings. There is a degree of sound thought contained in them, which renders them worthy of close examination and study. He was himself educated in one of the French Normal Schools. Indeed, we infer that he owes all that part of his education which he received from the assistance of others to the national institutions of his country. He has amply repaid this debt. The addresses which we have found in the French journals of the day, pronounced by M. Cousin in awarding prizes to the successful candidates in the colleges, show a

degree of interest in them and their pursuits, which is not and cannot be the result of a pretended enthusiasm. We regret that our limits prevent us from giving some quotations.

M. Villemain is still in office. We have not met with any digested report from him of his views and conduct with relation to the whole system of schools, but his course may be readily inferred by a close study of his official acts in regard to the several branches. The most important report which he has published, presented to the King on the 1st of November last, has just reached the country. It is the triennial report of the primary schools. We are glad to see from this and the other documents before us, that M. Villemain does not think it necessary to counteract all his predecessor's action merely because he was his predecessor, as too many statesmen would have done.

The report on the primary schools is a very valuable document, particularly so as it makes especial allusions to a branch of the French instruction, of which, as we have said, M. Cousin said but little. By adding to his own paper, we have a full understanding of the present French school system. The importance of the primary branch will be seen from the opening paragraphs of the report.

"The law of 1833, and the various ordinances and regulations which have followed it, have produced the most extensive results, which are constantly increasing, and which will, in a period which we can readily foresee, prove universal in France. The primary instruction is now classed among our great departments of state. It has its budget in every commune, in every department, in the annual law of finance."

The exertions of government are turned to giving at least one school to every commune in the kingdom. There are 37,295 communes, 33,099 of which are provided with schools, leaving 4,196 without. To account for this large number of destitute communes, the minister says: "It must not be forgotten, that ten years ago the number of such communes was much greater than 4,196, it was 14,230. Besides, in the schools then existing, many of the instructors were very old, and many others hardly capable. A very great number of new instructors was necessary to suffice for the wants of the old schools, as well as for the formation of the new ones. The number of new institutions, including those of the charitable societies of education, has been about 2,500 per annum, since 1833. It will easily be seen, that even with the greatest exertions of the Normal schools, it was impossible to obtain annually a more numerous supply of new masters, and to create at once, in a few years, masters for so many destitute communes. Another difficulty will readily be conjectured—the ignorance of the destitute communes, their remoteness from any centres of influence, and their dis-

union ; on these accounts the progress of the exertions to supply schools universally has by no means kept pace with the first movements.

"It would not be advisable," the minister continues, "to compel an appropriation of money for the purpose of establishing schools, but the law of 1833 seems slowly to secure the object by its injunction on all communes, whether provided with schools or not, to pay nevertheless the three centime tax for public instruction, their share of which accumulates in the public treasury for the benefit of the unsupplied communes."

M. Villemain has made as earnest efforts as his predecessor to enlarge the number of the superior primary schools. The law of 1833 ordered that every commune having 6,000 inhabitants, and every one which was capital of a department, should establish such an institution. There are 290 such communes, but only 161 of them have conformed ; 103 others, however, have voluntarily established such. The non-conforming communes have to pay to the treasury the annnal sum of 400 francs ; but this is much less than they would be obliged to pay for the support of such an institution. The minister proposes to annex to some of the colleges in the poorer communes, which are really unable to support the superior primary establishments, collateral courses, which may in part take their place. He seems fully aware of the importance of these intermediate establishments, of which he speaks in as strong language, and to the same effect, as M. Cousin. A number of private schools adopt this branch of instruction. Since 1837, the pupils in these (the superior primary) schools have increased in number from 9,414 to 15,285 ; 194 of these schools are now complete in their courses. Some of them serve as model schools, according to the plan of M. Cousin ; those of Nantes, Caen, Lille, and Rennes. Every possible measure is taken to extend a liberal zeal among the large towns for the maintenance of these institutions. The law of 1833 provides that the wish of the father should always be considered in reference to the religious instruction of his child. This arrangement has not given rise to any serious difficulty. The *mixed* schools, where pupils of different sects have been received, have been generally maintained. When a division has been demanded on grave grounds, and with real means, no obstacle is made to a special school of any usual faith. The state of the schools in this respect, is explained by the following table :

	1837.	1840.
Schools especially devoted to Catholics,	26,370	28,018
" " " " Protestants,	563	677
" " " " Israelites,	28	38
Mixed schools,	2,352	2,059
Whole number,	29,313	30,785
	Increase, 1,472.	

The reader will see at once, from the table, that the different sects have created new schools, rather than divided old ones. There are many more new special schools than mixed ones discontinued. The Israelites frequently attend the catholic and protestant institutions.

The Normal schools are justly considered by M. Villemain, as by M. Cousin, one of the most important parts of the whole system. The attention of the administration has been turned towards raising their character, rather than increasing their number, so that but two have been added during the last three years. The following extract from the report will show the judicious manner in which the instruction is conducted :

“ The administration does not forget, that the pupils who go from the primary Normal schools are generally destined to become inhabitants of small towns, to lead a laborious and simple life. It has felt, that after having received them from poor parents, in order to prepare them for this kind of life, it was not well to return them to the world with wants which were before unknown to them. They have, therefore, accustomed them to the habit of dispensing entirely with the assistance of others. There is no primary Normal school where the pupils have not been employed to take the charge of keeping the school-rooms and dormitories in order ; each of them in turn takes a part in the necessary mechanical labor, and in household affairs. No false shame deters them from performing these humble labors, to which they have generally been accustomed in their homes, and from which they will not usually be exempted, in after life. But, though the habits of the school may be simple and poor, care is taken that they shall not become rude and gross. Order and propriety are strictly observed there. For the most part, the punishments made use of in boarding-schools and colleges are not applicable here. The children are kept within the bounds of their duty, by some severities and privations. Serious faults are punished by exclusion from the school, which is greatly dreaded by the pupils, and the fear of which has a very powerful effect upon their conduct.”

As we have shown in our extracts from the report above, the administration relies in great measure on the Normal schools for its supply of teachers. Other candidates are admitted, however, but they are obliged to pass a strict examination before they can be permitted to serve. During the last three years 3,992 candidates applied for permission to instruct, of whom only 1,774 received the certificate, having passed the necessary examination. This fact speaks well of the zeal and labor of the inspecting boards, the constitution of which is a striking and admirable feature of the French system.

The report proceeds to give some statistics of the number of persons educated. All the tables close with the year 1840. The fol-

lowing table shows the number of pupils in the primary schools in 1837 and in 1840.

	1837.		1840.	
	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.
Public and private, under charge of an instructor,	1,547,194	412,636	1,607,013	444,356
Public and private, under an instructress,	23,350	707,511	34,394	795,916
Grand total,		2,680,691		2,881,679

Increase during three years, 200,988.

The increase since 1829 is 1,912,339.

The same difference is observed as in our own schools as to the attendance in winter and summer, particularly in the country communes. In the public schools devoted exclusively to boys, there were in winter 756,999, and in summer only 463,464.

We have thought it well to compare here the number of pupils in France with those in Massachusetts, according to the report of the Secretary of the Board of Education, published on the 13th of January, 1842, containing the reports of the last year. The nature of the instruction in Massachusetts is probably quite as high as in France; but we suppose that the schools may be open, perhaps, in France longer than in this State. In France, also, the instruction is more systematic; a large proportion of the schools use the same books, those recommended by the general administration of instruction. The following table will show the result of the comparison of the two countries:—

	Population.	Num. of child. between 4 & 16 yrs. old.	Num. of child. educated in schools.	Per centage of child. edna. on population.
France,	33,540,908	8,335,227	2,881,679	8 3-4 per ct.
Massachusetts,	734,258	184,392	189,660	25 4-5 per ct.

We have introduced the column of children between 4 and 16 years old, as giving the usual years of school attendance. In Massachusetts, however, 16,855 persons not included in those years attend school. The table gives a slight undue advantage to France, as the population is stated on a return of 1836, but the school attendance on that of 1840; and a slight undue advantage to Massachusetts on this account:—

The list of school attendance in Massachusetts is prepared from the following items:—

Pupils in public schools,	155,041
“ in incorporated academies,	3,825
“ in other schools,	31,794
Total,	190,660

But some of the pupils probably attended more than one of these schools, the public, and afterwards one of the others. The error is not, however, more than three or four thousand, at most.

The labor of the boards of inspection in the several French communes may be inferred from the result of the examinations of the several schools. In 1837, 10,018 schools were reported as being in a good state, and 6,735 in a bad state. In 1841, 11,461 were reported in a good state, making an increase of 1,443 in the number of well-conducted schools. This fact is doubly gratifying, as it shows at once the improvement in the character of the schools, and the strict surveillance kept over them.

The whole number of persons employed in the management of the schools is 62,859; an increase during three years of 3,416. During three years ending in 1837, 528 instructors had been reprimanded and dismissed by the proper tribunals. During three years ending 1840, only 109 had been so punished.

The French instructors have in one instance met with a difficulty, to which none of ours have been subjected. In Brittany, a large part of the population do not understand the French language, but speak the Breton dialect only. Some of the public institutions in that country, therefore, have collateral classes for instruction in French, which have proved highly beneficial.

M. Villemain's labors have not been confined to the primary schools only. The chambers authorized in June last appropriations for two new colleges. When colleges are established, the several communes are permitted to make offers of assistance, which are considered in their location. These two institutions were placed in Maçon and Laval, those places having made the highest bids. Maçon voted 230,000 francs for the college buildings, apparatus, and furniture, and an annual appropriation of 12,000 francs for twenty scholarships. Laval gave about the same sum; and this seems to be the amount considered necessary for the establishment of a college, independent of the grant from the chambers.

Such is a brief exposition of the recent improvements in the French system, and we have endeavored in preparing it to convey some general idea of the system itself. It recommends itself principally to attention from the constant adherence in its arrangement to a fixed principle. It has not for some years suffered under the vacillations of inconsiderate legislation. It shows the great advantages of having for such a system some responsible head, and a constant watchful attention. The greatest interests are at stake in the game which the ministers of instruction have to play, and they felt this too well to trust any thing to chance. The example is one

which may well be imitated. If the legislation of the American states with reference to their schools were conducted more constantly on such wide and liberal principles, we should have reason to hope for more striking and gratifying results than have yet been obtained.

In truth, no American, be he statesman or not, can seek a wider field for usefulness than a constant care and zeal for the condition of our common schools presents. The people of Massachusetts have long taken a pride in their system of education, and in its effects on the mass of its inhabitants. It behooves them to take care that they keep pace with older countries in perfecting this system. This admonition may be addressed to the people of all the States. In all there is much room for improvement, and there is much to be learned from the experience of France, Prussia, and other countries of Europe. All this calls for earnest action and speedy improvement ; and if that action be based on as benevolent designs and as well-digested principles as those of the French statesman, whose works we have been contemplating, that improvement must follow. Such an object as this once fully effected, we shall no longer have to fear the trivial crises of passing parties ; till it has been, we shall have but little security against their unceasing agency.

M I S C E L L A N Y .

LORENZO STARK :

OR, A GERMAN MERCHANT OF THE OLD SCHOOL.

[Translated from the German. — Continued from Vol. II. page 534.]

CHAPTER XXVIII.

"ALL well, all safe," said Monsieur Schlicht, while rubbing his hands, and with a smiling face he re-entered the room ; "the boy has had his scolding and his present, a miserable careless knave."

"The scolding," said Mr. Stark, "you might have spared him."

"No, no, the present sooner ; for that he earned by accident, but the scolding by his own carelessness. Ah ! how glad I am, my dear, dear Mr. Stark, that you have come back. I was in a dreadful strait."

"About me ? I wanted nothing, dear father."

"But I did. Think, in the name of Heaven, what commission your father has given me to execute."

"What?"

"I was to come to you,—to you, whom I did not know were here,—how should I?—and must ask you circumstantially and exactly how the commercial affairs of Madam Lilius stand; those affairs on account of which I have so often been obliged to keep awake."

"What?" cried Mr. Stark, turning quickly round in his chair.

"Yes, yes. Whether the active will at least balance the passive, and in how short or long a time any thing will be realized."

"Schlicht!" and he took the old book-keeper in his arms, "Me? were you to ask me this? me?"

"Who else? Your father knows all your intercourse with the widow. She herself seemed to have spoken to him about it."

"Herself? I believe, old man, you are not in your right mind. You are out of your senses. How came my father to meet the widow?"

"Listen, young gentleman," said Monsieur Schlicht, and shook his head angrily; "do not trouble yourself about my senses, I beg you. I have, I thank God, old as I am, my five senses as sharp as any one."

"But yet once more, Schlicht, answer me, and then be as angry as you please. How came my father to the widow?"

"Did I tell you that he came to her? She came to him."

"She to him?"

"Yesterday morning, here, in this house, and went away ill enough."

"Ah!" cried Mr. Stark, and blushed over and over again.

"But yet in sufficient style; for the Doctor's lady and I carried her home in a coach."

"In a coach? and why?" he began to grow pale.

"Yes, she was lying in a fainting fit, the poor lady; one would have sworn she would never wake till the day of judgment."

"Gracious heavens! Perhaps the beginning of a sickness, a mortal sickness!"

"Oh! something was the matter;" he threw his head back; "but you would not have suspected any disease. She was scarcely again at her own house when she was brisk as a bird."

"Is this true? is it certain?"

"Would Schlicht deceive you? But I must tell you, my dear, dear young master, what gave me the greatest joy."

"You?"

"Your father used such expressions about you; such expressions! here the old man took a pathetic tone; "my son has behaved so honorably, my son has shown himself so noble, my son has had the generosity——. You know, my dear, dear young master, I never in my life heard him speak in such a manner of you."

Mr. Stark would have felt some shame if it had not been absorbed in pleasure. He saw the cloud which had been hanging over his future life clearing away, saw his dearest wishes turning to hopes, and now attacked old Schlicht with a multitude of questions, which, however,

for the most part, remained unanswered. "If I only knew," said he at last, "what in the world brought the widow here, what she wanted?"

"Oh, as to that, I can inform you, from the mouth of the old gentleman himself. She is in perplexity with regard to a certain Mr. Horn, who presses her for his debt."

"Horn?" cried Mr. Stark, and stamped violently upon the floor. "He, the miserable good-for-nothing fellow! Then he has not kept his promise, which I with so much trouble and so many words extorted from him. I was a fool not to pay the beggar at once. And what did my father conclude? what will he do?"

"He will stand by the widow, to be sure. You will hear about it as soon as he comes from the exchange."

"Has he been there long? What do you think?"

"I think he seemed to have some important business; he was in a great hurry."

"I will go down to my mother; perhaps she knows more than you do, dear old man; or if she does not know, then I will go to my brother-in-law, my sister, to the widow herself!"

"Stop, stop," cried Monsieur Schlicht, while he fortunately held him by the skirt of his coat; "we have not finished yet, young gentleman—you do not go yet. First say whether the property of the widow——"

"Only covers the debts, do you mean? There will remain something over. Nothing less."

"Good; and the time when it will be realized?"

"Three—four months at farthest."

"Excellent; but now might I know one circumstance; when first——"

Mr. Stark was gone.

"He is gone," grumbled Monsieur Schlicht, and looked after him, shaking his head. "This is still somewhat strange to me—something is hidden. Young man, young man, you have looked too deeply into the widow's eyes. You are in love. Well now, and if he is, what matter is it? The widow is a handsome, good woman. She has very pretty manners, I must confess. She thanked me yesterday very politely. She called me dear Mr. Schlicht more than once. So, so, if she likes him, why should he not take her for a wife? Who would hinder him? All right, Mr. Stark; go directly about it. The life of a bachelor is a tiresome life—ha, ha! Then I, old fool that I am, with children, then I shall have something to carry about and fondle in my seventieth year. In heaven's name, I wish they were here now, the little rogues, and could run alone."

CHAPTER XXIX.

THERE was little or nothing to be learned from the mother; whereupon Mr. Stark hastened (by way of the gate, which Mr. Schlicht was

obliged to open for him ; for if he went out by the front door, he might meet his father,) to his sister.

The latter, who had known of his journey, seemed surprised at his return. She could not prevent herself from teasing the impatient lover a little about his passion, and representing herself as burning with curiosity as much as he was burning with love, and meeting all his questions about the widow with counter questions about his journey. But at last her sisterly heart yielded, and she made him inexpressibly happy by telling him, that according to her observations, and those of her husband, the widow was as much in love as he was. She was herself animated in a high degree by the proud feeling, which is always so agreeable to the sex, of seeing a man twisting and turning in the chains of a woman, yet she also felt, as all right-minded women do, a strong inclination to put an end to the sufferings of the poor languishing mortal, pleasing though it might be to witness them. She promised him with her hand and mouth, that nothing in her power should remain undone, to steer the little ship of his love safely into the haven, even if the winds and waves should prove adverse.

When the Doctor came home, the three plans which Mr. Stark had drawn for the three cases above mentioned, were made the topic of conversation. The Doctor was of opinion that he should first of all come to an understanding with his father, and should again engage in his business ; after which, the consent to the marriage with the widow would not certainly be wanting. Mr. Stark, on the contrary, wished, first of all, to make sure of the sentiments of the widow, to know whether he should change his place of abode, and how he should proceed and explain himself to his father. Into his old situation in the firm he would at no price enter again, whatever his fate might be, and as regarded a consent to his love, he knew the unconquerable obstinacy of his father in his once-formed judgments.

The Doctor now told him how much the prejudices of the old gentleman against the widow had been shaken, and insisted again that his first step must be a reconciliation with his father, with whom he would now live upon an entirely different footing. A return to the old relations, he thought, was no longer to be feared, if the son did not himself endeavor to bring it about. Whether his father loved him was not now the question ; but that his affection had failed of a necessary quality, and that this want was the cause of all the trouble and misunderstanding.

Mr. Stark insisted that the Doctor should explain himself more fully ; and the latter promised to do so upon condition that his frankness should not be misunderstood.

"Well, then," said the Doctor, "there was wanting to your father's affection, what is now in your power to give him, in a high degree, and to increase every day, — esteem for you."

"True, more than true too. He has always despised me."

"He has always wished to be able to esteem you in the highest degree. Ask yourself how far this has been possible."

"Have I ever done him wrong?" said Mr. Stark, getting up with great emotion. "Have I ever committed any crimes?"

"Crimes are out of the question. Do you esteem every one who is not actually guilty of crime? Does not esteem ask for something more?"

Mr. Stark remembered the pleasure which old Schlicht had expressed at the tone in which his father had spoken of him, was softened, and took his seat again.

"I have your word that you will pardon my frankness, and therefore give me leave, once for all, for the sake of harmony between you and your father, on this point, to express my inmost thoughts. Your father looks upon you not as a wicked, but as a weak man; one who is shut up within himself, a character entirely given to sensuality, effeminacy, and vanity. According to what he saw of you, for you concealed from him what good you did, he could not think otherwise; he was forced to form this opinion of you. He thought you stood in direct opposition to himself; and of himself, in truth, even with the strongest impartiality, how could he think differently from all the world, who regard him with approbation and respect.

"From this arose his manner toward you, his caustic, angry, vexing tone, which always displeased me; which I would never use towards a son of mine, whatever I might think of him, even if I did not lack the wit and humor to use it. This tone and manner, however, are so natural to the whole spirit and temper of the old gentleman, that he could hardly be expected to abandon it so long as he received you in the light he has been accustomed to look at your character. To make him leave off this manner, there was no other way but to cause him to change his opinion of you; and —" here he took the hand of his brother-in-law and pressed it with warmth, "this change has been effected."

Mr. Stark had listened quietly, and still remained silent. The Doctor informed him, that the whole story of the reconciliation with Lilius, and all that had followed thereupon, had been related to the old gentleman, and painted himself, not without emotion, the great emotion which this had excited in the elder Stark. "Meet him now, and you will perceive an entirely different expression in his countenance. Speak with him now, and you will find an entirely different tone. In fact, my dear brother, even if you should retain the little weaknesses, shall I call them so, that he used to laugh at in you, he would ridicule them no longer; he might wish them away, but he would tolerate them as being of no consequence in a disinterested, generous and benevolent man, such as he now considers you. Nothing but intimacy, reconciliation, confidence; and I assure you, you will be more to him in future than any of us. You will carry him the wife of your heart to be his daughter. You will be master of all the business affairs, so long as you manage in the spirit you have done, since the death of Lilius. You will find in him no longer a censor and judge of morals, nothing but an affectionate friend, a tender father."

Willingly as Mr. Stark listened to all this, not only as a lover, but a

son, in whom the feelings of duty and nature were never entirely extinguished, yet it seemed to him more like a delightful illusion, than actual hope. He was, therefore, positive, that his first step ought to be to make sure of the mind of Madam Liliass, that he might, at his visit of reconciliation, explain the state of his affections to his father; because this reconciliation, if his father did not consent to his marriage, could not be of any duration, and if the widow should refuse his hand, would be of no use. He was in the last case, firmly resolved to change his place of residence. This matter was discussed for some time, and argued on both sides, until Madam Harvest, who had been absent, "on hospitable thoughts intent," came in, and summoned her husband and brother to dinner. She announced, that she had given her children their dinner in a separate apartment, that they three might be alone, to consult in more entire freedom.

The dispute between the Doctor and Mr. Stark was now laid before her for her decision, and after short consideration, was decided for both and against both. "You cannot agree because you are men, that is to say, blockheads, who must always see and do a thing just as they have been accustomed to see and do it. My heart! just throw your two opinions into one, and the thing is settled."

"Throw them together? how can that be?" asked the two gentlemen at once.

"Yes, if there were no women."

"You, indeed! amiable peacemakers that you are!" said the Doctor, laughing.

"We are, to be sure, sir, that we are, and you shall soon have proof of it. You, brother, would in the first place be certain of the widow's attachment to you before you speak to my father. Is it not so?"

"Exactly."

"And you, my dear husband, propose that my brother should come to an understanding with my father before he arranges with the widow?"

"Nothing else."

"Now, why need there be any dispute upon the subject? There is no difficulty. It all goes excellently together. I will procure, for my brother, from the widow, her consent with the most entire certainty, without directly asking for it, and my brother, if he has this consent, may be willing to speak to his father before he makes formal proposal to the widow. The father will then hear, and, after having heard, can act, and he cannot complain that he has been neglected by the son, and the son need not fear any perplexity on the other side; can any thing easier or more simple be thought of?"

"But I do not see how you, without any formal proposal, can ascertain that Madam Liliass gives her consent," said the Doctor.

"Poor man, you do not see it, to be sure. Tell me, what did you call the countenance of some one, of whom you was speaking the other day, when you were certain that the patient would die?"

"Hippocratish, perhaps."

"Something like it—yes, that sounds like it. Now poor maids and widows when in love have a something—hip—hip—what do you call it?"

"Hippocratic face."

"Exactly so; and we women—that is, you understand, wise ones—can judge as well respecting the case as your learned doctors do of your patients. This evening, brother, you shall have full assurance respecting the widow, without my making the least explanation to her."

"But, sister," said Mr. Stark, "if you will fill up the measure of your kindness to me, there is one thing more——"

"What is that?"

"That you should, before I speak to my father, try to discover his opinion of this marriage, not directly, but from a distance. Ah, this would make my conversation with him unspeakably more easy."

"It can be done," said the sister.

"He will already have parted with half his prejudices against the widow."

"He has, more than half; but, my dear husband, what are you going to do yourself? How shall you be employed? You must do something?"

"Whatever is in my power, most willingly. I am already so weary of the family uneasiness——"

"To-morrow, you know, is Sunday, and my father is here at dinner. What if you should commune with him in your room, and endeavor to bring him to a fatherly, friendly reception of my brother. If you should represent my brother as so much moved, so thankful for his last present——"

"That he has recovered——"

"Just so."

"With pleasure. But then he will immediately, if he thinks your brother has recovered, or if he still imagines him ill, go to him that he may embrace him."

"He does not come so easily to that point."

"No, no," said Mr. Stark. "Spare me, sister. You have promised me."

"True. to speak to him first about the marriage; and there will be time for that. And yet I rather regret, that the Sunday when we have him here alone, and when he is usually so happy, should be spent in such a serious conversation. Stop; you have been in the country, brother, with a friend?"

"Certainly."

"Recollect yourself. You have not been, but you are in the country. My husband has advised you to ride, and to-day or yesterday, it may be to-day, after dinner, you went away. Meantime you can remain with your sister, and return to the city whenever you please. Schlicht shall be informed of the decision."

"I am a happy man," said the Doctor. "What a wife I have."

"Have you not?"

"A wise and noble wife. Such a power of invention ! such fertility of mind !"

"Wicked, wicked. Not a word more. You will compel me to say, what a woman is so unwilling to say, — Husband, you are right."

The arch expression with which she arose, gave promise of a kiss, and the Doctor had already raised his napkin to his lips, by way of preparation ; but she suddenly turned to the door, and having ordered the pudding, very quietly took her seat.

CHAPTER XXX.

"Do I not come a little too often ?" said Madam Harvest, pausing for a moment at the door of the widow's apartment. "Shall you not soon be compelled to be denied to me ?"

"Oh, my friend, denied to you ? I who should be glad never to be separated from you ? Such a question !"

"It sounds worse than it means. Do I not know very well, that you are willing to bear with me ?"

"To bear with you ? You shall not leave me till midnight, for that speech."

"Poor me ! that would be a sad punishment."

They now seated themselves, and Madam Harvest was about turning the conversation to the principal subject of her visit, when a lad from the warehouse of Madam Lilius came in, and announced the old gentleman, who yesterday assisted that lady from the carriage.

The Doctor's lady closed her book at the place, and cried, "Schlicht ? He would not come unless he was sent ? What can he want ?"

"He wishes," said the lad, and turned aside to Madam Lilius, "to speak to you alone."

"Ah well, I must take my leave then. That is bad. Yet if you will permit me, my friend, I will just step into this ante-room, and truly, truly, I will be very good. I will look out at the window and not come near the door."

"How you alarm me !" said the widow. "Pray, stay. What secrets can he have ?"

"Who knows ? He may, to be sure, not have been sent. He is still a bachelor."

"Wicked friend !" She now stepped with much politeness to the door, and forced the old man in, the cheerfulness of whose countenance announced that his message was not one of ill tidings, and confirmed Madam Harvest in her idea.

"Why," said she, "it is actually you, my dear good old father, on my honor, and dressed like a bridegroom, or a suitor ; what does this mean ?"

Old Schlicht laughed heartily.

"On my word, I never saw you so fine in my life."

"One may well be fine, my dear Madam Harvest, when he has good

friends to uphold him in it ;” and he cast a stolen glance at his new satin vest, and from the vest again to his benefactress, with an expression of love and gratitude, which would have made an older face than his look young. The vest was a present from Madam Harvest on his last birth-day, and he wore it for the first time to-day, to do honor to his errand.

The Doctor’s wife, moved by his pantomime, touched him gently on the shoulder. “ But is it true, dear old man, that you wish to be alone with Madam Lilius ? Must I go away ? ”

“ How so ? how so ? ”

“ The boy who announced you said —— ”

“ Ah the boy is ——,” he was within a hair’s breadth of bringing out an emphatic word, but he fortunately recollected himself, and kept back the word “ fool,” which was in his mind, — “ not very wise.” He went on to say, that Madam Harvest might hear his whole message. She was herself interested in it.

With great gravity he then delivered his message. “ His principal,” he said, “ regretted extremely, that owing to his increasing difficulty in hearing, he did not exactly understand the particular object of the agreeable visit, with which Madam was so kind as to favor him yesterday, but had taken this visit for an almost superfluous act of civility. He had afterwards been more correctly informed of the design of that visit, by his daughter, Madam Harvest, here present.” Here the old man received a very cordial glance from the Doctor’s lady.

Monsieur Schlicht proceeded to say, that partly as a commercial agent, and partly as a trusty and discreet servant, well known from years of experience, his honored principal had given him orders to assure Madam of his perfect readiness to enter her service. His orders were then to proceed to the counting house of Mr. Horn, and to pay the debt of that violent man, whose weak side was well known to Mr. Stark, either by exchange or cash, as he preferred. Moreover, his master begged, that in case a similar difficulty should arise with any other of her creditors, Madam would immediately have recourse to him, and allow him to be, what would give him the greatest pleasure, her curator. At the same time, he wished to be spared all thanks, because he was assured by his son, that he incurred no risk in this case, and the pleasure which he received in being able to assist her in this way, far surpassed any service he might render her. He, Monsieur Schlicht, was now desirous to obtain, if agreeable to the lady, the exact amount of the demand of Horn, that he might complete his errand, and report the whole affair as settled to his principal.

Scarcely had Monsieur Schlicht finished his message, which he delivered with the greatest pleasure, than Madam Harvest took the hand of the widow, and not without filial pride in her heart, asked, “ Was I wrong ? ”

“ Oh, my friend, such generosity to a stranger, one almost entirely unknown ! But I know whom I have to thank for this help.”

“ Whom ? whom ? ” said she, withdrawing from her embrace. “ My father. No one else.”

"He has the noblest daughter ——"

"Do you know her? She is a gossip, who can keep nothing to herself; who could not help prating to the old gentleman all she knew, and even told him what she had learned of the disagreeable situation of her friend, and the object of her yesterday's visit. This is all, I assure you. No word of intercession, of encouragement to assist you, no thought of it; this would have done my friend no good, and would have offended my father. He acts, not as others advise him, but after his own heart."

"I listen to you with astonishment, a feeling ——"

"Let that pass;" and now she embraced the widow, with true and hearty friendship. "My good Schlicht, who is always busy, is now waiting for an answer; you will not vex him by any delay."

The widow begged Monsieur Schlicht to assure his principal of her heartfelt respect and deep emotion at the undeserved mark he had shown her of his benevolence; but at the same time to say to him, that obedience to one part of his orders, made obedience to the other impossible. "I will trouble you, my dear Mr. Schlicht, with a few lines from my own hand, which you will have the goodness to give him. My personal thanks I reserve. Will you give me leave, my best friend?" and she made a motion toward the antechamber.

"Go, go; you are giving yourself unnecessary trouble; but I know you will not dispense with it."

Madam Harvest made use of these moments, when she was alone with Schlicht, to acquaint him with all which it was necessary for him to know, of the obligations which her husband had given Horn to relieve the widow from her danger. The wish, that her father should know nothing about it, and that he should suppose it not her husband, but the widow, who was released; her design to have it appear for some days that her brother was gone into the country, until a certain plan was matured, which would divert him from his plan of going to B * * ; finally, that the necessity no longer existed of keeping her brother's recovery, and his journey into the country, which was to take place that afternoon, any longer concealed from her father. Monsieur Schlicht, with his usual kindness, promised to remember every thing, and expressed his approbation of the propositions of his dear Madam Harvest.

Madam Lillias entered with a note, and a paper in her hand, on which the demand of Horn was written down; and behind her appeared a maid with a flask of sweet wine, and some glasses. Madam Harvest excused herself on account of her dislike to wine; Monsieur Schlicht because his business at home pressed him so, that the ground burned under his feet. The widow, who would so willingly have shown him her gratitude for his trouble, made use of all her eloquence toward him, and had so far succeeded that he was beginning to hesitate, when Madam Harvest, who wanted to be alone with the widow, advanced to his side, and helped him. "I know," said she, "my dear good Schlicht, he does every thing which devolves upon him with the greatest zeal, the great-

est fidelity; and as the case of my father's house is given up to him, he is as much attached to it as though he had, like the snail, grown up within it. He does not, to be sure, carry it on his back, but he bears it in his heart. He is never at ease but when he is at home."

This was praise entirely after the heart of Monsieur Schlicht, and he returned his thanks with great joy, while he honestly accepted it. Madam Liliass, in parting, said many pleasant things to him. She referred to all the good things she had heard of him from Mr. Stark, and expressed her pleasure in having made the acquaintance of a man, who was of so much consequence to so respectable a family as that of Stark.

No Madeira, nor Cyprus, nor Syracuse, nor any other wine with which the widow's flask might have been filled, could have quickened the heart of old Schlicht more, or more turned his head, than these amiable words; for he actually seemed when he got into the street as if he were a little beside himself. He spoke so loud to himself, and gesticulated with so much animation, that several of the passers-by stopped and laughed as they looked after him. The amount of his soliloquy was, that of all the women in the city Madam Harvest was, without contradiction the best, but that after her Madam Liliass was the most amiable, and most excellent. When he thought of the possibility of any one being rash enough to contradict him, he struck his cane so hard against the pavement, and made such strange faces, that a couple of children at play clung together in alarm, and ran crying home.

FRENCH EXPLORING EXPEDITION.

WE have heretofore published accounts of the geographical discoveries of the *Astrolabe* and *Zelee* discovery ships. A recent report to the French Academy gives us the means to make the following sketch of some interesting discoveries in natural history, made by the members of the expedition, who have brought home large collections.

They were very successful in obtaining specimens of the carnivorous sea animals of the *Phoca*, or seal species, beside several good skins and skeletons of the eared *Phocæ*, and among others a kind similar to the *Phoca Australis*, which they procured on the ice beyond Cape Horn, or the Auckland Islands. They succeeded in obtaining not only the earless seal, called *Phoca Liptonyx* on account of the small size of its nails, but also a beautiful and new species of the same family with two pairs of incisives, above and below; the molar teeth of this animal are very remarkable, in the very regular manner in which they are *lobed*, on the back part only.

The *rodentia*, or gnawing animals are very rare in Polynesia, Oceanica, and Australia. These gentlemen have brought back no specimens,

except the skulls of the *Octodon*, collected at Terra del Fuego, and the tufted squirrel, (*Sc. bivittatus*), of Sumatra, and the domestic rat, which they found every where, and which is a very remarkable example of man's agency in spreading animals over the surface of the earth.

The expedition has brought, beside several skulls of the *Dugong*, from the shores of the Strait of Torres, an entire specimen of the species, which has been preserved in spirit, and from which the skin has been drawn; it is now well prepared, a specimen which before did not exist in our collections. Besides this, they have brought a skeleton more entire than any we now have.

The *Pachydermata*, which, near the end of the Molucca Archipelago, are reduced to two species of hogs, were not met with by any of the gentlemen of the expedition, who, however, did not neglect to obtain, as they had been desired by the Academy, skulls of the European domestic kinds, which are scattered over almost all the islands of Oceania. They have been more fortunate in the cetaceous tribes. Among a great number of dolphins of which they have either the skins or the skeletons, are found what we have not seen before this expedition, five or six kinds, one or two of which are new. They did not, however, succeed in obtaining the dolphin with two dorsal fins. It was sought for with great perseverance, and its existence is therefore considered very doubtful.

As to the cachelots and whales so common in the waters which have been visited by the exploring expedition, they could not procure any characteristic specimens. We learn from M. Jacquinot, one of the surgeons of the *Zelee*, that all the whalers consider the baleinoptera of the south as distinct from that of the north.

Among the *Didelphi* and *Ornithodelphi* brought by the expedition, we find a beautiful individual of the *Echidné* species, preserved in spirits of wine, a koala, and several kinds of kangaroo, one of which appears to be new, at least in our museum collections, and among a large number of anatomical specimens, several brains preserved in spirits of wine, bones, and skeletons of the koala, which our collections do not possess, and finally the skulls of the domestic animals which have been transported, and which were desired by the Academy.

We pass over a list of the ornithological specimens, given in the Academy's report at length.

The most precious article in the ornithological collection is, undoubtedly, beside a very beautiful small chionis, well preserved in spirit, two entire individuals of a singular bird from New Zealand called *apteryx*, because its wings are even more incomplete than those of the casoars, and which unite with the character of a long and slender bill, like that of the woodcock, nostrils pierced almost at the end of it. This kind was not found in the museum collections, though great exertions have been made to procure it. It will be, however, completely represented there by the skin and skeleton, owing to the exertions of M. Dumont d'Urville, who, at the particular solicitation of the Academy, has given to it the two individuals, bought by him alive at Hobart's Town.

Amongst the skeletons of birds we must also notice as very important to our collections, that of the golden-headed manchet, a young casqued cassowary, and a black swan, and of animals preserved in spirits, three birds of paradise, and several other names not less interesting. Beside what we have already mentioned, there is a very rich and numerous collection of skulls and busts in plaster, moulded from nature, of all the races of men in different stages of civilization. The commander in chief, M. Dumoutier, succeeded in obtaining moulds from living subjects, one or two individuals of each race and of both sexes, and bestowing on the plaster busts which have been made from these moulds the natural color of the complexion. It may well be imagined that this process required great skill, but moreover M. Dumoutier had need of great perseverance, and various means of persuasion, to induce these men, more or less in a savage state, or even at a low degree of civilization, to allow their heads or hair to be touched, it being considered by them almost irreligious; and then to have the head and face taken in a mass of plaster, was hardly to be borne. For this reason, the operation was not often altogether successful. Several savages broke the mask before it was entirely hardened. Notwithstanding, however, various obstacles, M. Dumoutier has brought fifty-one busts: four from the island of Gambier, thanks to the kind assistance of the French missionaries; two from the Sandwich Islands; one from the island Samoa; four from the island of Viti, two of which are women; four from the Solomon Islands; three from the Caroline Islands; three from Guam; one Japanese; four natives of New Zealand; and several from New Holland, &c. Unfortunately, M. Dumoutier found, on arriving at Amboyna, that his plaster failed, he not having had room to take from France a sufficient quantity. M. Dumoutier found it difficult in many places to procure skulls at any price, as the remains of the dead were held in so much respect. At the island of Soloo, a certain chief finding that he was desirous to purchase a skull, offered immediately to cut off for him the head of one of his enemies, though he was unwilling he should take any from a grave. The same thing happened in several places.

We ought also to add, that the expedition did not always confine itself to collecting fragments of human skeletons, but that they have brought back, preserved entire in alcohol, the body of the unfortunate Tonga, which was taken on board at Vavo, and who died of phthisis at Moluccas.

This part of the Report of the Academy closes with these words:

“In finishing what we have to say of this part of the collections made by the *Astrolabe* and *Zelee*, in order to demonstrate their importance, we have only to call to mind how useful these materials may be in confirming, rectifying or destroying the celebrated system of Gall respecting the relation of the intellectual faculties to the exterior of the skull, and how important it was to hasten to collect them, in consequence of the continued pouring in of Europeans over every part of the continent, and the islands of the South Sea, tending to diminish the number

of their inhabitants. For example, it is asserted by M. Dumoutier, that in the whole great island of Van Dieman's Land, there existed not more than forty natives, who have been sent to the Flinder's island, and among whom not a single birth has taken place for the last year. Sixteen years have produced this result, and without any other cause than the change in the habits of the unfortunate inhabitants. In fact, in 1824 there were 340 natives; 180 men and 160 women. In 1840 there are only 40 in all, of which 5 only are women.

THE ISLE OF MAN.

THE ancient and independent kingdom of Man, to which packets ply regularly from this port, is situated, as most of our readers are aware, in the Irish Channel, about thirty miles from the coast of Cumberland, the same distance from Ireland and from the Mull of Galloway, in Scotland. It is as nearly as possible the centre of her Majesty's European realms, though inhabited by a people differing widely in manners, customs, and language, from most of her subjects. Owing to the laws of the place, which differ most widely from those of this country, it is almost impossible that a stranger can go into any business with a tolerable prospect of success, and in this assertion we are fully borne out by the very many, who, during the last half-dozen years, have made the experiment and failed.

For a long period the Isle of Man was the resort of persons of limited income, as it was supposed, at one time, and perhaps justly, that the necessaries, as well as luxuries, of life, were to be obtained at a more economical price than in this country. Now, however, with one solitary exception, the case is different; every thing is as expensive in Douglas as in Liverpool, and many things much more so. Spirits are cheaper, but they are of a very inferior quality; bread is dearer; fuel is dearer; clothes — every article of British manufacture are dearer. Beef, mutton, or pork, though a penny a pound lower than the Liverpool market price, is not worth so much, by a full third, as what is to be procured here, whilst much of the veal exposed for sale there would be condemned if discovered in our shambles. Codfish is occasionally cheap, but cannot be purchased in small quantities; herrings, once the staple commodity of the island, and on the successful fishing of which many of the natives still depend, are yearly increasing in price, owing to the rapidity of communication with good markets, afforded by means of steam packets. House-rent is as high in Douglas as in most English towns, and in the interior is higher than in many parts of even manufacturing Lancashire. The duties on wine and spirits are increasing, and in a few years will be assimilated to those of Great Britain. Bad as are the laws in England, they are infinitely worse in this

little island ; but when the duties, &c. are placed on a par with this country, we see no reason why the Manx people should not be governed by the same laws, and be represented in Parliament, instead of being trodden under foot by a self-elected House of Keys. The taxes are but trifling.

As a bathing-place, in fine weather, with the wind from any point except between east and south, Douglas Bay is unsurpassed. The water, flowing over a rocky bottom until within a short distance of the shore, is beautifully clear ; so clear, indeed, that small objects are plainly perceptible at a depth of several yards. The clearness of the water off Douglas Head was, on one occasion, a very great consolation to an old lady from Yorkshire, who had suffered some little from sea-sickness, and more from fright, during a rather windy passage. She observed, "she was glad they had got into a place where they could see the bottom, as there was there no fear of being drowned !" forgetting the packet of which she was on board drew ten feet of water. The wind from south or east, or from any intermediate point, drives a tremendous sea into the bay and harbor, which has often been productive of disaster. A breakwater has been for some time in contemplation, and we are told there are ample funds for improving the ports and harbors of the island lying dormant. A harbor of refuge, for vessels in the Irish Channel, in case of bad weather, has long been wanted, and a more eligible site than Douglas Bay, with a breakwater, could not be found. There are abundant materials on the very spot for such a work. The duties charged on vessels entering the present harbor are enormously high, and even pleasure yachts are subject to them.

The interior of the country is mountainous and boggy, in many places, even on the very summits of the mountains ; but almost destitute of that beautiful scenery which meets the eye at every turn in Wales, and timber there is none of any size. For the angler or shooter the island has many attractions ; but there, as here, the spirit of despotism has shown itself in the form of a game-law directed solely against strangers, and more infamous, if possible, in its operation, than that with which we are cursed in this country ; consequently, the influx of strangers for the purpose of shooting is trifling compared with what it would be were there no restrictions respecting the game. That noble bird, the peregrine falcon, so esteemed of old, when hawking was in fashion, breeds in the rocks of Maughold Head, a high promontory on the northeast coast, and also in the rocks in the Calf of Man, a small rocky island divided from the main land by a most dangerous channel of a mile and a half in width. Various kinds of hawks, as well as ravens, Royston or blue crows, and a number of other carrion birds find secure shelter in the inaccessible rocks which abound as well on the coast as in the mountains, and myriads of the blue rock pigeon breed in the rocky caves all round the place. The latter is, perhaps, the swiftest flying bird in creation, except the swift or black martin. The game consists, for the most part, of snipes, landrails, and woodcocks ; the last making the mountains a calling place on their periodical mi-

gration southward in November, and again in February on their return to the Norwegian forests, where they breed. Few remain in the island throughout the winter. Land-rails arrive in May and depart in the autumn; but whence they come or whither they go is a problem which has not been solved. Snipes breed in considerable numbers in the extensive marshes near the Point of Ayr. Trout abound in every stream not affected by water from lead-mines; they are of small size, but afford the angler good diversion. Salmon ascend the rivers in great numbers, in the winter months, for the purpose of spawning, but seldom succeed in regaining the salt water, owing to the numerous poachers, who destroy them with spears when the water is low and clear. The lower orders of the Manx have no genius for poaching game; their natural element seems to be the water.

The productions of the soil are much similar to those of our northern counties. The corn is generally late, and often injured by wet; but potatoes grown there exceed most and equal any in the world. Most of them find their way to the Liverpool market, and the demand for them is increasing every year. The soil is very stony, and produces excellent turnips as well as potatoes; but a second crop of clover or rye-grass can never be obtained in one summer. The breed of mountain sheep is almost smaller than that of Wales; and, in some places, plenty of goats in a half-wild state, pick up a scanty subsistence amongst the mountain rocks. Every cottager keeps one or more brood geese as well as fowls and ducks. The country, from Bishop's Court, (the seat of the bishop,) to Ramsey, in some degree reminds one of some of Snowdonia's glens, and the scenery near Sulby Bridge, near Ramsey, is not deficient in interest to the tourist.

The Foxdale Lead Mines are very productive, and are worked to considerable extent by a company who have at present a monopoly of all the minerals in the island, except a small district called the Bishop's Barony. The ore is rich in silver as well as copper.

A tour of the Isle of Man, as generally made, leaves the visiter in ignorance, for the most part, of the most interesting objects it contains. A rapid drive from Douglas to Castletown, with a view of Castle Rushen, immortalized by Sir Walter in the "Peveril of the Peak," perhaps a trip to the Calf, a drive to Peel, thence by the Tynwald Hill to Kirk Michael, Ballaugh, and Ramsey, to return to Douglas by way of Laxey, (a small village with a paper-mill, and peopled principally by lead-miners,) — this constitutes with most the tour of the island, and in this route the tourist will find only one or two objects apparently worth remembering. The frowning rocks of Greeba, on the road to Peel, may create an impression on the memory; the gorge in the mountain called Craig Willie Syl may be remembered, as, in all probability, the traveller will be compelled to walk through to ease his horses, — fears for the safety of his neck on going down the steep hill into Laxey, and a toilsome walk up a similar one out of it, may have the same effect; but objects interesting from their antiquity, and particularly the Tynwald Mount, will be passed unnoticed for want of an efficient guide. The Tynwald

Hill is situate at a place called St. John's, three miles from Peel and eight from Douglas, and from it must be read, in Manx and in English, all the statutes passed by the House of Keys, as the legislators are termed, before they become the law of the island. It is a small mound of earth, about nine feet in height, with broad steps to the top, which is some seven or eight feet across, and is situate at one end of an oblong green, resembling a bowling-green. Upon this place, on a court-day, a tent is erected, and in the presence of the Governor on the Mount do the Deemsters promulgate any new law which has been considered necessary. We may, perhaps, at some future period, recur to this subject.

There are two packets, one of them (the Queen of the Isle,) a tolerably good boat; the other, (the Mona's Isle,) a better sea-boat, perhaps, but older; indeed, quite old enough to be replaced by another, as she must have well paid her owners.

Douglas, the principal town, is not the seat of government. It is situate on the east coast, at nearly an equal distance from the northern and southern extremities, on the margin of a beautiful bay, three miles across. In this bay, about five hundred yards from Douglas Head, is a dangerous rock, on which a tower of refuge has been built. It is called Conister, or St. Mary's Rock; and upon it the celebrated steam-packet, the old St. George, having parted her cables, whilst at anchor in the bay, during a gale from the southeast, struck, and beat to pieces; the catastrophe was not attended with loss of life. A few crabs and lobsters are found in the bay, and salmon, of middling size and quality, are taken by means of trap-nets, placed near the entrance of the harbor, as they approach for the purpose of ascending the fresh water river, which forms the upper portion of it. On Douglas Head, the southern point of the buoy, are two light-houses, which, with one on the pier-head, can be seen at a considerable distance, and are easily recognized. Some three or four miles to the left, on approaching the bay, is the point of Langness, the place where Christian, of the Commonwealth, was shot by the orders of Lady Derby, (the Stanleys were then as now, a headstrong race.) Subsequently, it was the scene of another tragedy. A few years ago a vessel was wrecked, and a great portion of the cargo lay upon the beach, which is rocky and dangerous. Sentinels were placed to guard the wreck; a young man, son of one of the principal authorities in the island, presuming on his father's office, ventured to approach the place during the night, and paid with his life the price of his temerity.

The voyage from Liverpool generally occupies about eight hours, or eight and a half. The passage has been made in a few minutes less than seven, but it not unfrequently extends to eleven hours, varying as the wind and tide may be favorable or otherwise. On landing, the visiter will be pestered with numerous applications from lodging-house keepers, whose business is good or bad as the influx of strangers is great or small, and many of whom depend solely on letting their apartments a few months in summer, for subsistence for the year. Respectable hotels, we speak from experience, are much cheaper and every way

preferable to private lodgings, in Douglas. Stratham, for some time our neighbor in this town, is the master of a good establishment there; at the York Hotel, kept by James Mackenzie, excellent accommodation and obliging attention are to be obtained, at a very reasonable rate; whilst Philip Cain's, Redfern's, and the British Hotel are unexceptionable. Stratham's and Mackenzie's are, perhaps, to be preferred, as being in the cleanest part of a very dirty town, and near the pier-head and beach. The principal street in the place, though boasting large plate-glass windows, almost equal in size to some of our Liverpool ones, is not wide enough for two English carts to pass. Hackin's-hey, Temple-lane, and Hockenhall-alley, in this town, are far superior to the generality of the streets, the latter being, with little exception, as crooked as runs in a rat-hole. The town is ill drained, or, rather, not drained at all, though there is ample fall for the most perfect drainage. Most of the houses are without the accommodation of a back entrance, and dust and night-soil must be emptied through the front door. Some of these nuisances, or all of them collectively, might have aggravated the fatality of the cholera, which was dreadful in Douglas during the two first years of its visitation to this country.

There is an excellent covered market, a large one, considering the size of the town and number of its inhabitants; but such is the stupidity and self-willedness of the country people, that they never avail themselves of it, though they could do so without any charge or toll: they prefer standing with the produce of the dairy or fowl-yard in a small dirty square, near to the harbor. Once, on asking the reason of this, we were answered by a thorough-bred native, that she "could get a better price for her stuff on a wet day, as the English and strangers would not stand chaffering with her in the rain." It is well known, that more rain falls in hilly countries than in any others, and the Isle of Man is not singular in this respect; but we never, during a long residence there, knew a native change his clothes on account of being wet through.

The climate is healthy, though the atmosphere is humid, and not suited to all constitutions. On account of the breezes which generally prevail, the effluvia from the extensive bogs is innoxious. There is scarcely a house in the island which is not affected with damp to an extent that would be deemed dangerous by a stranger, though catarrh or cold is by no means ever common; but we are in doubt whether some incipient twinges of rheumatism, occasionally felt, are not to be attributed to a prolonged residence amongst the mountains some time ago. We are certain, that some children, naturally healthy, recovered almost immediately from an attack of whooping-cough on arriving in Lancashire, though, during their stay in Douglas, there was no symptoms of the abatement of that distressing malady.

The herrings, of which we have already made trifling notice, arrive on the west coast of the island in the month of June, and, to have them in perfection, must be eaten on the spot where they are caught. We leave to the naturalist the interesting subject of their migration, and

merely state what we know from personal observation of their habits. On their first appearance they swim very near the surface of the water, and gradually take a deeper position in the water as they approach the spawning ground, where they are found, for the most part, on the bottom. The nets used for their capture are fourteen yards deep, more full at the bottom than the top, in order that the meshes may present a longitudinal form in the water, and are of immense length. They are shot or stretched out into the sea at sunset, and float during the night with the tide, the fish striking against them remain sticking fast by the gills, or neutral fins, until drawn out of the water, when they are shook into the hold of the fishing boat, and many are broken in two by this rough mode of transit from their native element. Buoys, made of dog-skin, are used as well to float the net at the required depth as to serve the fishermen with a guide. Five is, generally, the number of a boat's crew, and they will manage a net or nets of some three hundred yards in length. The herrings caught on the Peel coast are so rich, during the month of June and greater part of July, that they cannot be cured so as to keep for any length of time. The price, at this period, averages in Douglas from 3s. 6d. to 5s. per 120. The Manx people will, on no account, touch their nets on a Saturday evening, a superstitious idea prevailing amongst them, that their so doing would be productive of disaster. — *Liverpool Albion*.

CHRONOLOGY.

FOREIGN.

CHINA. Our news from China is from Canton, to the 17th of September. Reports, which probably should be credited, stated that the British expedition captured Amoy on the 27th of August. Particulars given are but few. It is said that the English first took possession of a small island commanding Amoy, whence they threw shells into the town with tremendous effect; that the first and second military mandarins were killed, (both with red buttons,) and that the town was entered and taken sword in hand. It is also said that a garrison of a thousand men was to be left there with three ships of war.

The English forces left at Canton were making active preparations for an attack

on that city in case it were rendered necessary by the conduct of the Chinese. The withdrawal of so large a portion of the military from the north had aroused the courage of the Chinese garrisons and their generals, who, entirely regardless of the truce, had begun to obstruct the passage of the river, in hopes of rendering the city inaccessible to the naval force. These proceedings, and the warlike disposition evinced by the natives, rendered it necessary for the naval commander on the station to go up to the city at once with his force.

BURMAH. The sovereign of this country, excited by his Chinese neighbors, and the absence of a large part of the English forces from India, has begun warlike movements against the Anglo-Indian power. His intentions are not fully

known, but the Governor-General has deemed it necessary to take vigorous measures to be prepared against hostile designs.

The dates of our latest intelligence from that country are Moulmein the 22d, and Rangoon the 25th September. The King (Tharawaddie) was on the latter day within seventy miles from Rangoon, where it was expected he would arrive in less than a fortnight. Great preparations were being made for his reception. His Majesty has with him almost the whole of his army, amounting, it is said, to nearly fifty thousand fighting men, besides a large number of followers, as also women and children. The number of boats in which they descended the river from Ava, is estimated at from fifteen thousand to eighteen thousand.

Immediately after the above intelligence reached Calcutta, orders were issued for the despatch of troops to Moulmein. Transports have been taken up, and a merchant steamer hired for the occasion. Her Majesty's 50th regiment, together with a corps of native infantry, and a detachment of European artillery, amounting altogether to about 1,000 men, have accordingly proceeded to the scene of action. A portion of them were conveyed by her Majesty's ship *Calliope*, which was refitted for the purpose with all possible celerity; and every other practicable measure was taken for collecting and sending on a powerful naval and military force.

It was well understood in India that the Emperor of China has written to Tharawaddie to "combat the white dragon,"—that he believes the English to be powerless from their wars in China and in Afghanistan, and just now unable to employ any force of consequence against him either by sea or land; that they have suffered reverses in China, and that all their energies were directed to that quarter. His people were eager for war, and confident in the strength of the army. Stockades had been erected, and the defences of Rangoon improved; and on these grounds, and the tone of the people on the spot, it was thought beyond a doubt at Moulmein that a war is inevitable.

LIVERPOOL, NOV. 22. THE STEAMSHIP *FORTH*. This fine ship, one of the fourteen belonging to the Royal West India Mail Packet Company, made a short trial trip from this port on Sunday, and another on Monday, and the result was, on both

occasions, highly satisfactory. There were on board, on the latter day, Captain Chappell, R. N., the marine superintendent appointed to inspect the fleet, the Rev. Dr. Byrth, Rector of Wallasey, John D. Maddock, Esq., magistrate, the Russian consul from London, with several of his countrymen. Captain Chappell, and, indeed, all on board, expressed their great gratification with the performance of the vessel, and admirable arrangements and accommodations throughout. The weather was hazy, and the wind and tide unfavorable throughout, rendering the navigation of the channel somewhat difficult, yet she made good from 11 1-2 to 11 3-4 knots an hour, out and back, rounding one of the outer lightships. The engines made 16 1-2 revolutions per minute. On her return she anchored in the river opposite the Sioyne, and on Wednesday reentered the Coburg Dock, where she is receiving her complement of coals, and other necessaries, preparatory to her proceeding to Southampton to take her place in the West India line.

LONDON, NOV. 23. LIGHT GOLD COIN. By Appendix No. 12 to the second report to the select committee on banks of issue, we find that the Bank of England, in the four years ending December 31st, 1840, had tendered at the bank in London £36,007,898 in gold; of which it rejected, as light coins, to the amount of £7,435,274. At the branches in the country there were tendered in the four years, £27,153,669 in gold; of which were rejected, as light coins, to the amount of £3,085,383. Light gold coin, from this table, seems to be on the increase; for in the year 1840 the amounts tendered were, London, £9,588,144; branches, £8,039,355. Rejected as light, London, £2,679,080; branches, £1,119,455. It would appear from this, that more than £1 in every £4 tendered at the Bank of England is light.

CONSTANTINOPLE, Dec. 1. The following information, received by way of Trebizond, was current at Constantinople, and was probably founded in fact, though we feel justified in considering it exaggerated.

"A letter from Constantinople of Dec. 1, states on the authority of information received by way of Trebizond, that a Russian army, which had been landed on the coast of Circassia for the purpose of destroying the grain, had been left unprotected by the destruction of the fleet

in a storm, and being attacked by the Circassians, had been entirely cut to pieces, so that not more than two thousand escaped; the rest of the thirty thousand having been killed or taken prisoners."

MADRID, Dec. 26. The Cortes met, and its session was opened in form. The young Queen was present, and the Regent, who read a long address to the Cortes. In the usual forms of such an address, it announces the continued good feeling existing with foreign governments. A treaty has been negotiated with the Republic of Ecuador, and a diplomatic agent appointed, who is now on his way thither. A special treaty of commerce has also been negotiated with the same state, which will be submitted to the ratification of the Cortes. Treaties had also been concluded with Chili and Uruguay, but were not yet ratified. Government has taken measures to improve the roads and facilitate mining operations. With this latter view, and to improve the condition of the farmers, it has created agricultural banks, and intends to persevere in that measure. The army and militia are spoken of as on useful footing; new codifications are to be presented for the approbation of the Cortes; justice is duly administered; the law abolishing entails proves highly useful; the decree of the government and the manifesto published in answer to the impolitic allocation of the Pope, have entirely stopped the aggressions with which the nation and government were threatened.

The Government uses all its zeal in introducing morality and regularity in the management of finance, and the remarks of the message in regard to public credit close with the following words, which seem almost ironical: "The national and foreign creditors will thus learn how we religiously keep faith,—a virtue for which Spain has ever been renowned."

The address closes with an account of the measures taken for the support of the navy, with an allusion to the satisfactory state of the transatlantic Provinces, and with notices of proposed bills respecting the liberty of the press, and the duties of ministers, and several local matters of legislation.

PARIS, Dec. 30. The King opened the Chambers by a speech from the throne. The address, of course, informed the Chambers of little which they and the public did not know before; the public burdens had been reduced; a proposal

was made to extend public assistance to certain lines of railroads; and some complaints were made of the constant opposition made by conspirators to the measures of the government.

An ordinance, published by Marshal Soult, Minister at War, effects a reduction in the army to the amount of one company in each battalion, amounting to 89,000 men, and 15,000 horses. By this operation a saving of 30,000,000 francs per annum is effected.

The Court of Peers, after the trial of Quenisset for treason in firing at the Royal Dukes, pronounced M. Dupoty, editor of the *Journal de Peuple*, also guilty of participation in the plot; and sentenced him to five years' imprisonment. He was not charged with conspiring with the authors of that attempt, but with contributing, by his writings and publications, to an excitement which led to it. Nearly all the Parisian press, particularly the opposition part of it, protested in the strongest terms against the sentence, as an infringement of the constitutional charter; the conductors of all the papers, excepting the *Moniteur*, the *Journal des Debats*, and a few others, meeting and agreeing to an address, drawn up to express their indignation at the condemnation of Dupoty. A committee of the Literary Society, comprising many of the principal literary characters of the day, published a similar manifesto.

These circumstances attracted much more attention than the trial out of which they arose. In that, Quenisset, Colombier, and Brazier were condemned to death, three other accomplices to transportation for life, and five to imprisonment, varying from five to fifteen years.

LONDON, Dec. 30. Lord Ashburton, well known in political life, having been as Sir Alexander Baring a distinguished member of the House of Commons for many years, and for a long time a member of the celebrated firm of Baring and Brothers, was appointed a special ambassador to America, to settle the questions at issue between England and the United States. Lord Ashburton is, of course, attached to the conservative party, now in power. He formerly acted with the Whigs.

BRITISH ROYAL NAVY. PORTSMOUTH, Dec. 21. There are at the present time in commission 23 line-of-battle ships, 34 frigates, 73 steamers, 107 brigs, corvettes, and sloops, 10 guard and receiving ships, 3 royal yachts, and one gun-

nery ship, making a total of 259 vessels. The ships of the line are 4 of 120 guns, 3 of 110 guns, 2 of 104 guns, 1 each of 92, 78, and 76 guns, 7 of 84 guns, and 2 of 74 guns. Of the frigates, 8 are of 72 guns, and others from 36 to 50 guns.

Of this number, 29 sailing vessels, of which 12 are of the line, and 2 are 72 gun frigates, and 13 steamers, are in the Mediterranean, besides 1 80-gun ship on her way home; 29 sailing vessels are in China and the East Indies, exclusive of a fleet of ships and steamers belonging to the East India Company; 23 sailing vessels and 9 steamers are in North America and the West Indies; 28 sailing vessels and 1 steamer are on the African and Brazil coasts; 5 in South America, and 1 on her way home; 3 sailing vessels of 20 and 6 guns, and 3 steamers on the Canada lakes; 2 sailing vessels and 2 steamers, at Lisbon and Gibraltar; 3 sailing vessels at Austin and Swan Rivers; 2 in the discovery service; 3 steamers and a schooner in Africa, on the Niger expedition; 15 sailing vessels at Portsmouth, and 1 on her passage; 13 and 3 steamers at Plymouth; 5 at Sheerness; 4 and a steamer at Chatham; 2 on the coast of Ireland; and the rest at Woolwich, Liverpool, and other ports.

BANK CIRCULATION OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND. The following is an abstract of the official return of the *average aggregate* amount of promissory notes payable to bearer on demand, in circulation in the United Kingdom, and also the average amount of bullion in the Bank of England, during the four weeks preceding the 11th of December, 1841:

	Bank notes.	Bullion.
England, Bank of England,	£16,292,000	£5,031,000
England, private Banks,	5,718,211	
England, joint stock,	3,217,812	
Scotland, chartered private & joint stock,	3,448,660	
Ireland, Bank of Ireland,	3,303,275	
Ireland, private and joint stock,	2,581,713	
Total,	34,561,571	

MEXICO, Dec. 10. The most important measure of Santa Anna's administration thus far is the issue this day of a manifesto to the nation, accompanied by

a decree for the election of delegates to the new Congress, which is to convene in the city of Mexico on the 1st of June next. The ratio of representation is one delegate for every 70,000 souls, agreeably to the census prepared by the National Institute of Geography and Statistics, as follows:

Departments.	Population.
Mexico,	1,389,520
Jalisco,	679,111
Puebla,	661,902
Yucatan,	580,948
Guanajuato,	513,606
Oajaca,	508,278
Michoacan,	497,906
S. Luis Potosi,	321,840
Zacatecas,	273,575
Vera Cruz,	254,380
Durango,	162,618
Chihuahua,	147,600
Sinaloa,	147,000
Chiapas,	141,206
Sonora,	124,000
Queretare,	120,560
Neuvo-Leon,	101,108
Tamaulipas,	100,068
Coahuila,	75,340
Aguascalientes,	69,693
Tobasco,	63,580
Neuvo-Mexico,	57,026
California,	33,439
Tejas,	27,800

Total population, 7,044,140

The labors of this Congress are to be confined to the single business of framing a constitution.

TABASCO AND YUCATAN. The following intelligence from Tabasco shows the rapid progress made by the Santa Anna and Mexican authorities in the attempt to conciliate the revolted provinces of the south, (see Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 556.)

The schooner *Dos Amigos* arrived at Tabasco on the 30th ult. from Vera Cruz, bringing as passenger Col. Alonzo Fernandez, who left Mexico on the 17th of November, charged by President Santa Anna with a special mission to the State of Tabasco, to assure Gen. Sentamanat that Federalism was completely reinstated throughout Mexico, inviting him to return to the Mexican family, and appointing him Governor and Commander in Chief of Tabasco. Don Fernandez was also the bearer of several valuable presents from Santa Anna to Sentamanat, among which were a gold watch and a splendid military uniform. A sort of election was thereupon held, when eight

thousand were declared to be in favor of joining Mexico, and having Gen Sentamanat for Governor. Cocoa was declared to be admissible into Vera Cruz free of duty, and commerce was to be facilitated and encouraged. So Tabasco is again one of the States of Mexico.

TEXIAN EXPEDITION TO SANTA FE. The fate of this expedition was sealed as long ago as the 11th of September. The very circuitous means of communication, however, and the difficulty of making any, have delayed any account of it which could be relied upon till recently, since the publication of our last number. At this distance it is impossible to analyze with entire correctness, the motives which led to the expedition, but they were doubtless two-fold. The ostensible one was to open a channel for, and to establish, a trade between the province of Santa Fé, in New Mexico, west of Texas, and the distant ports of Texas. For this a road was to be opened through an as yet untravelled country, for a distance of over seven hundred miles. United with this object, we may say without hesitation, was that of inducing by persuasion or conquest, the Mexican province of Santa Fé to join itself to Texas. The expedition was armed and equipped in a manner to carry out both these purposes. There were doubtless many persons who joined themselves to it, from a mere desire of adventure, and among these were Mr. Kendall, the editor of the New Orleans Picayune, and a young man, a son of Governor Coombs of Kentucky.

The plan was known abroad long before the expedition finally started from Galveston, and during the time that it was working its way onwards through unexplored and desert or barbarous regions, the Mexican Government had abundant time to give all proper warning to its authorities at Santa Fé, and strengthen its forces there.

The result in consequence was its entire defeat by the Mexicans. The adventurers had, for some unknown purpose, detached a few of their number many miles in advance of their main body. These were looked upon, and not without some shadow of reason, as spies. They were finally treated as such with the most merciless cruelty, and two of their number shot. The main expedition surrendered without a blow struck, and the Americans who were with it, avowedly without any connexion with its hostile purposes, had their passports destroy-

ed, and were treated in the same manner as their companions.

We hardly dare to attempt to give a more detailed account of the failure of the expedition. Some treachery on the part of some of its members, and the most atrocious falsehood on the part of the Mexican officers, seem to have induced its members, some of whom, at least, must have played a very cowardly part, to give up their arms, according to the requisitions of a preliminary treaty, which was at once disregarded by the Mexicans, and the whole detachment, numbering more than two hundred men, were made prisoners, robbed of their arms, and sent to the city of Mexico.

As soon as the United States Government received an account of these transactions, it despatched instructions to Mr. Ellis, U. S. Charge at Mexico, requesting him to use his influence for those American citizens who had joined it without warlike intentions, and at the same time it despatched a special private agent to Mexico with a similar view. These negotiations and proceedings are too recent to have produced, thus far, any effect.

CANADA. KINGSTON, Jan. 10. Sir Ch. Bagot, the new Governor-General, arrived, and was received with appropriate honors. On the 12th he issued his proclamation, announcing officially his appointment and arrival. On the 19th he took the oaths of office. Sir Charles came from England in the *Illustrious*, seventy-four, landed at New York, and proceeded to Canada by way of Boston and Albany, the North River being frozen up.

DOMESTIC.

WASHINGTON, Dec. 20. A daring robbery was committed in the new Patent Office of some of the most valuable of the different articles of jewelry which have at different times been presented by foreign powers to the agents and officers of our government abroad. These were a snuff-box, presented to Mr. Consul Harris by the Emperor Alexander, a string of pearls presented to the President by the Imaum of Muscat, and the scabbard of a sword presented in South America to Commodore Biddle, ornamented with valuable diamonds. These jewels were subsequently recovered at Baltimore, on board a vessel for Richmond, where they had been placed by the thief, who himself escaped. They were all together, and had received but slight injury.

PHILADELPHIA, Dec. 27. The Court of Criminal Sessions pronounced upon the presentment of the grand jury, asking that an indictment of the late officers of the U. S. Bank might be sent up to them. The grand jury, at the request of a citizen of Philadelphia, had examined the proceedings of the bank officers, called witnesses, administered oaths to them, and finally sent down the decision in question.

Counsel had been heard in behalf of the accused, and the Court finally, in its opinion, quashed the presentment, and refused to order bills of indictment. The grounds were these: that the witnesses should have been sworn in open court; that the Court should have decided as to the admissibility or non-admissibility of the testimony; that witnesses were made to testify against themselves, without the protection they would have had before a petit jury, and that the grand jury had not the right, in the extended sense that was claimed in this presentment, to act from their own private knowledge.

DETROIT, MICHIGAN, Jan. 3. The Legislature of Michigan met for its annual session. Neither House was permanently organized, but the votes for Governor were canvassed, and it appeared that Mr. Barry (Democratic) was elected. Mr. Barry had 25,795 votes, Mr. Fuller (Whig) 15,496, and Mr. Fitch 1,214.

ALBANY, Jan. 4. The Legislature of New York met for its annual session. Lieutenant-Governor Bradish presided in the Senate, which consists of 17 Democrats and 15 Whigs. The Assembly organized itself by the choice of Levi S. Chatfield (Democrat) as Speaker, by a vote of 93 to 32. The Governor immediately sent his Message to the Legislature.

HARRISBURG, PENN. Jan. 4. The Legislature of Pennsylvania met for its annual session. The Senate, after thirteen ineffectual ballottings, organized itself on the 5th, by the choice of John Strohm (Whig) as President. The House of Representatives organized itself by the choice of James R. Snowden (Democrat) as Speaker, by a vote of 63 to 33, on the 1st ballot. The Governor sent in his Message on the 6th.

The official returns of the election for Governor given in October last, [Mon. Chron. Vol. II p. 478.] were, Governor Porter, (Democratic) 136,548, John Banks, (Whig,) 113,473, 786 scattering.

Boston, Jan. 5. The Legislature of Massachusetts met for its annual session. The Senate organized itself by the choice of Hon. Josiah Quincy, Jr. (Whig) of Boston, as President. The popular election of Senators left five vacancies, which were filled with the Whig candidates on the 8th, by the two Houses in convention. The division of parties in the Senate was then Whigs 31, Democrats 9.

The House organized itself by the choice of Hon. Thomas Kinnicutt (Whig) for Speaker. On this election, 190 Whigs voted and 131 Democrats. These numbers give about the relative strength of the parties, though the House when complete, consisted of 336 members.

The official canvass of votes for Governor gave the following result:

Whole number,	111,062
Necessary for a choice,	55,532
John Davis,	55,974
Marcus Morton,	51,367
Lucius Boltwood,	3,488
Scattering,	233

AUGUSTA, MAINE, Jan. 5. The Legislature of Maine met for its annual session. The Senate organized itself by the choice of Samuel F. Blake as President. The popular election of Senators left three vacancies, which were filled with the Democratic candidates on the 7th, by the two Houses in convention. The House organized itself by the choice of Charles Andrews as Speaker. The House consists of about 150 Democrats to 60 Whigs. The Governor sent in his Message on the 7th.

CINCINNATI, Jan. 10. A great excitement took place, attended by violent demonstrations of public feeling, in the shape of a lawless and reckless mob. After banking hours, it was rumored that the Miami Exporting Company Bank and the Bank of Cincinnati, both old and broken concerns, had stopped payment. This morning, at about 9 o'clock, a crowd in consequence assembled before the door of the latter Bank, and a notice was soon hung out upon the door that they had suspended for twenty days. When the doors were opened to hang out this notice, a rush was made for the inside, and all its contents, consisting of desks, counters, and the vault, were broken and thrown into the street. Money to the amount of \$224,000 was taken from the vault.

The mob then went to the Miami Bank, which they broke open, and destroyed its contents. The Exchange Bank, adjoin-

ing the Miami, of which John Bates, the well-known West Union financier, was an officer, was next assailed. A run was made upon him, and he continued to redeem all his issues, until the mob broke in and destroyed every thing. Thence they crossed over to Lougee's office, who was godfather to the Savings Bank at Louisville. This was likewise destroyed; and the crowd gathered at the corner of Third and Main streets. A strong disposition on the part of the mob was manifested to destroy the Traders' and Mechanics' Bank; but they continued to redeem their notes, which were nothing more than certificates of deposit with promises to pay in current bank notes, and thus escaped. How this most disgraceful riot will end, time only can show. A few of the military have been called out, but have effected little. They marched through the crowd with fixed bayonets, but they were soon attacked and compelled to retreat. As they retired they were ordered to fire upon the mob, which they did. Their guns were loaded with blank cartridges, however, and only two or three were slightly injured.

Several of the rioters were arrested and imprisoned. About \$24,000 was found upon them. These demonstrations ended the active proceedings of the mob, but a great public excitement continued for several days.

PROVIDENCE, R. I. Jan. 22. The Legislature acted on the propositions with reference to a new constitution.

It is well known that the government of Rhode Island has hitherto always been under the charter of the colony of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, as granted by Charles I. in 1643, and confirmed in the time of the English Commonwealth, in 1741. This charter, considered in its day as establishing the most liberal, democratical, and republican form of government in the world, has in the course of two hundred years become regarded as exclusive and tyrannical. In particular, it is disliked by a large class of the people, because under it all persons are excluded from voting who are not freeholders, or the eldest sons of freeholders. Several attempts have been made to procure its amendment, and early in the winter a convention called and chosen by those of the people who wished the right of suffrage extended, and desired a new constitution for that and other purposes, met at Rhode Island under the name of the "suffrage convention," and drafted a

constitution, which they submitted for popular approval.

The Legislature of the State had previously called a convention to report amendments to the old system of government, the delegates to be chosen by the qualified voters. This convention also met in Providence, a short time after the other, and without finishing its deliberations adjourned over till February. This was called the "Constitutional Convention."

The "Suffrage Convention" had appointed January 3, 4, and 5, as days on which the people should vote and give their ballots for the constitution drafted by them, announcing that all persons who did not vote should be counted as opposed to it. By the census, 11,752 votes would be a majority of the citizens in the state over 21 years of age. About a thousand more votes than this were returned as thrown for the "suffrage" constitution. As there were no legal enactments to secure accuracy in voting, however, this can be considered as an approximation only to the sense of the community; exaggerating considerably, undoubtedly, the number of friends of this proceeding.

A few weeks after, however, the "Suffrage Convention" met again at Providence, counted the votes as returned, and declared that the suffrage constitution was accepted as the constitution of Rhode Island. On the day mentioned above, however, the Legislature gave its opinion on this lawless course of procedure, by refusing to take any formal notice of the new constitution; rejecting by a vote of 11 to 57 a proposition to refer the report of the convention to a committee, with power to send for persons and papers, and inquire into the truth of the report of votes.

UNITED STATES CONGRESS.

REPORT OF THE COMMISSIONER OF THE LAND OFFICE. The sales of land during the first three quarters of 1841 are stated in this report to have been 818,072, 39-100 acres; and the purchase money amounted to \$1,024,823 43. The receipts into the Treasury, \$1,104,063 06.

The quantity of land prepared for market, but not yet advertised, is 9,876,142 acres; some further legislation is, however, necessary, before five million acres of it can be proclaimed. The surveys the past year have been carried on in Louisiana, Arkansas, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, Illinois, Missouri, Mississippi,

and Alabama. These have embraced the usual quantity of land.

An agent is at present employed in an examination of the several land offices, none of which have been subject to an investigation since the origin of the land system.

Numerous claims to the preëmption privilege have been suspended, because they were for quantities of land exceeding the amount authorized, or for defect in proof, error in location, &c.

The Commissioner suggests the propriety of throwing all the mineral lands into market in a mode similar to that prescribed for Missouri in 1829; which was by advertising a general description of the land, mines, and the facilities for working them, etc., in newspapers of general circulation, six months previous to the sale.

The attention of Congress is called to the case of the two hundred and thirty-five exiles from Poland, to whom thirty-six sections of land were granted by Congress, in 1834. The execution of the grant has been impracticable, as the amount of land granted to each individual did not conform to the amount included in any legal subdivision established by the public surveys, and because of the difficulty in the location of the lands, and the conflicts with the claims of other settlers, &c. Meantime many of the Poles are dead; some have obtained temporary employment; others have left the country; and most of them are poor. It is suggested, in the report, that scrip be issued to each individual entitled by the original grant, with the right to locate it on any of the public lands subject to private entry, properly restricting the transfer of the scrip, or the sale of the land.

To our latest dates, the 30th of January, Congress has done but little.

The questions of the right of search now pending between Great Britain and this country, have been touched upon in conversations arising on motions asking for certain documents from the Executive in relation to Mr. Stevenson's correspondence, and the case of the Creole; but nothing definite has been expressed as the opinion of Congress.

Mr. Clay introduced, in the Senate, on the 29th of December, his resolutions providing for amendments of the constitution, limiting the veto power, and prohibiting members of Congress from taking office under the Executive. On the

24th of January, the subject was called up, and after an able speech by Mr. Clay in support of the several propositions, and a brief argument in reply by Mr. Preston, the further consideration of the subject was postponed.

The House was occupied from the 24th of December to the 3d of January in discussing the reference to a committee, of that part of the President's Message referring to revenue. A reference to the Committee on Ways and Means appeared to discountenance protection of home manufactures, and a reference to the Committee on Manufactures to favor it. The House referred finally to the latter committee by a vote of 104 to 95. The vote, however, was not strictly a test one. Several members were absent.

On the 5th of January, the chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, Mr. Fillmore, reported to the House a bill for the immediate issue of Treasury notes for the use of Government. This proposition was made originally by the Secretary of the Treasury, in his annual report, [Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 566,] where the reasons for it were given, much in the form that they were afterwards pressed in debate in the House. The bill was, of course, opposed by the whole Democratic party, in the character of an opposition, and by many Whigs, who conceived themselves pledged against the issue of Treasury Notes by their course during the term of office of the last administration, and regarded their issue as unconstitutional. Although, at the time the bill was reported, the Treasury was without means to meet its daily payments, the discussion was continued, and by that and other means the question postponed till the 14th, when the bill passed, yeas 129, nays 86, an amendment having first been made, by which the amount of funds obtained by the issue of Notes should be deducted from the funded loan authorized at the last session, [Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 333,] the most of which the Secretary was not able to negotiate, [Vol. II. p. 563.]

After a short debate the bill passed the Senate on the 22d, with amendments, the most important of which was the striking out of the amendment mentioned above as inserted in the House. In the House, on the 29th, the amendment of the Senate was concurred in, by a vote of 100 to 100, the Speaker giving his casting vote in the affirmative.

The most important action of the

month, however, was that of the House on the general Bankrupt Act, passed at the last session, [Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 384.] At the time when that bill passed, it met with an opposition which could be overcome only by postponing the date at which it should go into operation to the 1st of February, that Congress might have an opportunity to alter or repeal it, should they deem it expedient so to do. No attempt, however, was made to amend the bill, but after a few weeks from the commencement of the session, a sudden movement was made to effect a repeal of it.

During the debate on the Treasury Note Bill, therefore, instructions to the judiciary committee, that they should report a bill providing for the repeal of this act passed the House, and after a stormy debate, the House passed the repealing bill, yeas 126, nays 94; nearly all the Democratic members voting in the affirmative, together with a large number of the Whigs, chiefly from the western and southern States.

The repealing bill was taken up in the Senate on the 25th, and it was opposed by Mr. Berrien, who defended the law on all points in an able argument. The debate was continued through the three succeeding days, and on the 28th, the question being taken, the bill was lost by a vote of 22 to 23. Of the 26 Senators who voted for the law on its passage at the last session, two, Messrs. Morehead and Young, voted for its repeal, in obedience to instructions from the legislatures of their respective States; and Mr. Dixon was absent in consequence of severe illness, of which he died on the following day. Mr. Mangum, who was absent at the passing of the bill, gave his vote against the repeal, and Mr. Mouton, who voted for the bill on its passage, was absent at the time of the vote on the repeal, having paired off with Mr. Preston. The friends of the repeal lost two votes from the absence of Mr. Cuthbert and Mr. Bagby. Had all the Senators been present, (Tennessee not being represented,) they would have been equally divided on the question of repeal. The Bankrupt Law will go into effect from and after the 1st day of February.

A debate of considerable interest arose in the Senate on a motion to refer to a special committee the President's Exchange plan, [Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 566,] which gave members an opportunity to express their views upon that measure. The special committee was appointed, consisting of Messrs. Tallmadge, chair-

man, a friend of the measure, Preston, Bates, Walker, Evans, Merrick, Young, Rives, and White.

The proceedings of the House of Representatives during the latter part of the month, presented scenes of very unusual occurrence. On the 21st, in the course of the presentation of petitions, on the call of members in the order of States, Mr. Adams presented, among others, one purporting to come from individuals in Habersham county, in Georgia, containing charges against himself, complaining that he was appointed Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations, and praying that the grievance might be remedied. Mr. Adams desired that the petition might be read, and demanded as a right, that he might defend himself against the petitioners. He moved a reference of the petition to the Committee of Foreign Affairs, with instructions to choose another Chairman, if they should think proper. Mr. Habersham said that he had carefully examined the petition; that it came from a county in his district; that the names were all in the same handwriting as the petition itself; that he knew of no persons residing in the county, of the same christian and surnames as those borne on the petition; and that he had told Mr. Adams he believed the petition to be a hoax. Mr. Adams was of a different opinion, and he claimed the privilege of speaking in his own defence. The subject, however, was on motion laid on the table. On the following day, this vote was reconsidered, and Mr. Adams was permitted to be heard in his own behalf. Mr. Adams addressed the House, with frequent interruptions, at great length, for the residue of the day. On Monday the 24th, the House refused permission to Mr. Adams to proceed further, and laid the subject on the table. The disposition of the petition was laid over as a debatable question. Mr. Adams proceeded to offer a number of other petitions. At length, he offered a petition, signed by Benjamin Emerson and 45 others of Haverhill, praying Congress immediately to "adopt measures peaceably to dissolve the union of these States," for reasons which were stated. Mr. Adams moved to refer the petition to a select committee, with instructions to report reasons why the prayer should not be granted. This proceeding gave rise to a violent debate, and resolutions of censure upon Mr. Adams, which were warmly debated for several successive days, and at the end of the month, the subject was not disposed of.

THE MONTHLY CHRONICLE.

FEBRUARY, 1842.

ARTICLE II.

RAILROADS OF MASSACHUSETTS. NO. IV.

WITHIN the last year, the system of Massachusetts railroads, having its centre in Boston, has been brought into complete operation. All the main lines of railroad, and their several branches within the State, which have been begun, and all which are necessary for the successful developement of the system, are completed. Several works for the farther extension of some of the lines of road, beyond the limits of the State, are yet in progress; and others are meditated, which will serve to extend the utility of the works already completed. One or two branches, also, within the State, have been projected, which will probably be carried into execution, at no very remote period; but these are not necessary for the successful operation of the lines already completed.

This system of works consists of four distinct lines of railroad, all taking their departure from different parts of the city of Boston, each in a different direction northerly, northeasterly, westerly, and southerly; each line consisting of the works of three or more independent companies, and each connected with railroads, extending beyond the boundaries of the State. We shall give a cursory review of the present state of each of these lines of railroads, and of the success of their operations during the past year.

These lines are, 1st, the *westerly* line, consisting of the *Boston and Worcester* railroad, 45 miles in length, with a branch to Millbury of 3 miles; the *Western* railroad, from Worcester to the state of New York, 117 miles in length; the Albany and West Stockbridge, from

the border of the state of New York to Albany, 38 miles, built by the Western Railroad Company, under a lease from its proprietors; the *Hudson and Berkshire* railroad, uniting with the Western road at the Massachusetts line, and extending to Hudson, 33 miles; the *West Stockbridge* railroad, uniting with the Western at the same place, 1 1-2 miles; and the Norwich and Worcester, uniting with the Boston and Worcester road at Worcester, and extending to Norwich, in Connecticut, 59 miles; about 20 miles of which are in the state of Massachusetts. The extent of this line of connected works, already completed and in operation, is 296 miles, of which 186 miles are in Massachusetts, and 110 in New York and Connecticut.

The proposed extensions of the line are, by the Berkshire railroad, which is now in the course of execution, and to be completed in the ensuing summer, which is to extend from West Stockbridge to the north line of Connecticut, where it will unite with the Housatonic railroad, extending thence to Bridgeport, on Long-Island Sound. Another proposed extension is by the Hartford and Springfield railroad, 25 miles in length, to be extended also to Cabotville, for which surveys and estimates have been made, and a charter has been obtained, but the stock is not yet taken up. This addition to the line, if completed, will unite it with the New Haven and Hartford railroad, and thus open a new line of steam communication between Boston and New York, by means of steamboats from New Haven, and probably, at a period not far distant, by a railroad from New Haven to New York. Two other additions to the line, for which projects have been entertained, and surveys made, affording favorable results, are, a branch of the Western road, by way of Cabotville to Northampton, and a branch of the Boston and Worcester road, from Westborough to Lancaster and Fitchburgh, with the power of extension indefinitely towards the northwest. These projects are not likely to be executed for some years to come.

In consequence of the great extension of this line, and the probability of a large increase of the number of trains on the main track, the directors of the Boston and Worcester road are laying down a second track, on their part of the line. This second track is already laid on 20 miles of the road, from Needham to Westborough, and it is to be farther extended during the ensuing year. For the purpose of accommodating the increased business to be expected from the extension of the line, the depot buildings in Boston have been enlarged upon a liberal scale. The lands and buildings in Boston have cost about half a million of dollars. The main track terminates in a two-story passenger building on the westerly side of Lincoln street, 290 feet in length, contiguous to which are buildings for the storage of passenger cars. On the opposite side of the street, a large freight-

house is erected, of brick, with a slated roof, 466 feet in length, and 120 feet in width, which is entered by four lines of tracks for freight cars. In this building, which has an area of 56,000 feet in a single room, without partitions or pillars, and covered with a strongly framed roof, the inward freight is unloaded upon one side, from the cars, upon a platform or floor, raised to the level of the floor of the cars; and the outward freight is loaded from a similar platform on the other side. The building is provided with platforms and scales, for weighing merchandise, with or without the cars, and with apparatus for the convenient transfer of the cars from one track to another. In immediate connexion with the freight depot are two wharves belonging to the corporation, upon which lumber and other heavy merchandise may be unloaded from vessels, and placed directly upon the cars, and unloaded directly from the cars to the vessels. In the vicinity of the freight-house, besides other freight buildings, are a freight car-house, traversed by three tracks, an engine-house, machine-shop, and other repair shops.

At Worcester the corporation has a large freight-house, a passenger-house 297 feet in length, in connexion with a similar house belonging to the Norwich and Worcester road, and an engine-house in connexion with that corporation, of a dodecagon form, with a large turning-table in the centre.

The rails of the second track weigh 60 lbs. to a yard, are 16 feet in length, are supported on six cross-sleepers to each rail, placed nearer each other towards the ends of the rails than towards the middle, and are fastened at each end by heavy cast-iron chairs, closely fitted to the rails, and spiked to the sleepers. The sleepers are laid upon a bed of gravel, all clayey earth being removed to a depth of 2 1-2 feet, and the bed being carefully drained.

The cost of this railroad, including depots, engines, and cars, up to the 1st of December last, exclusive of repairs, was \$2,374,547. Of this amount \$50,000 have been paid by appropriations from time to time from the income to a reserved fund, to make good deterioration from wear or decay, beyond the amount of repairs. The amount of capital paid in is \$2,300,000, and the company is authorized to increase it to \$3,000,000. A farther expenditure of 3 or 400,000 dollars will be necessary to cover the cost of the whole of the second track, and to complete the road and buildings in the manner now intended. This will raise the average cost of the road, including buildings, engines, cars, and all appendages, to about \$60,000 a mile.

There having been, during the whole of the last year, four daily passenger trains over the road each way, except on Sundays, and one or more freight trains. The quantity of merchandise transported

on the road in the 11 months to the 1st of December, was 39,255 tons, 19 cwt. ; of which amount 17,677 tons 18 cwt. were transported over the Boston and Worcester road only ; 18,254 tons 18 cwt. conveyed to or from the Western railroad ; and 3,323 tons 3 cwt. to and from the Norwich and Worcester road. The number of locomotive engines owned by the corporation, is 16. The amount of receipts and expenditures during the past year will be seen stated in a table given in a subsequent part of this article.

For the transaction of business on this line, the station accommodations for passengers and freight are provided, and the labor and responsibility of the reception and delivery of merchandise is at the charge of the Boston and Worcester railroad ; and the like services for goods despatched to and received from the Western and Norwich and Worcester roads, which require to be performed upon these roads, are done under the direction and at the charge of the officers of these roads respectively.

The Western railroad has been in regular operation during the whole of the past year, in the transportation of passengers and freight, between Worcester and Springfield. It was also in operation through a part of the western section, during the summer, and near the close of the year it was opened through from Springfield to Albany. The monthly receipts from passengers, the total receipts, including the produce of freight and mail transportation, the current expenses, and the miles run by locomotive trains, during the year, are exhibited in the following table :

	Passenger receipts.	Total receipts.	Expenses.	Miles run.
1841. January,	\$ 3,318	\$ 8,080	\$6,529	6,932
February,	3,417	7,770	6,160	6,177
March,	5,320	10,275	6,406	9,393
April,	5,287	10,692	5,974	10,342
May,	6,280	12,006	6,138	10,300
June,	8,311	12,448	6,802	12,800
July,	12,443	16,494	6,810	11,900
August,	17,462	22,522	7,667	12,832
September,	17,093	23,560	9,410	15,680
October,	14,170	20,843	9,796	16,997
November,	10,639	18,338	11,968	16,217
December,	10,102	19,251	21,148	18,036
	<hr/> 113,842	<hr/> 182,309	<hr/> 114,806	<hr/> 147,606
Distance run west of the summit,				12,500
				<hr/> 160,106

In a former Number, [Vol. II. p. 252,] we gave an account of the progress of the work on this railroad, to the middle of the last summer. Its progress since has realized the anticipations then formed. The

running of the cars from the Connecticut River to Chester Factories, was begun on the 24th of May, thence to the summit on the 13th of September, and across the summit to the State line, on the 4th of October. From that time regular trains of passenger cars were run through the line, in connexion with the Hudson and Berkshire railroad, from Springfield to Hudson. Trains in connexion with the Hudson and Berkshire road had been previously run, from the 4th of May, over the westerly portion of the Western road, to Pittsfield.

The work on the Albany and West Stockbridge railroad was so far completed, that on the 4th of December it was ready for the reception of locomotives from Greenbush to Chatham Corners, a distance of 23 miles; and by the use of a portion of the Hudson and Berkshire road, for a distance of 15 miles, under a temporary lease of that road, a continuous line of railroad was formed from the State line to the Hudson River, opposite to the city of Albany. Regular trains were from this time arranged, to run twice a day from Boston to Albany, performing the journey in 11 1-2 hours, and these have continued through the winter. On the 27th of December, the opening of the road was celebrated, by a visit of the Mayor and City Council of Boston, with other gentlemen invited, to the number of near 150, to Albany, where on the following day they partook of a public dinner, in which the city authorities, the governor, and principal state officers, and many other gentlemen participated. The visitors were also entertained by various other acts of courtesy and attention on the part of the city authorities and their friends in Albany. On the 29th, the Boston party were accompanied, on their return to Boston, by the Mayor and City Council of Albany, and a large party of other gentlemen invited, who were entertained, with other guests, at a dinner at the United States Hotel, in Boston. On the 31st, the Albany party returned to that city. The several journeys were performed on this occasion without accident, in periods of from 10 to 11 hours, by which it was demonstrated that large trains of passengers may with ease traverse the route in the space of a winter day.

The principal portion of the works yet to be accomplished on this railroad, is the improved line of 15 miles in length, from the State boundary to Chatham Corners, in New York, which is to be substituted for the portion of the Hudson and Berkshire road, now used under a temporary lease from that company. This part of the new line will have, when completed, no higher grade than 40 feet in a mile. The whole is to be completed under the contracts now in progress of execution by the 1st of August next. The amount expended to the 31st of December last, on the Albany and West Stock-

bridge road, was \$734,840, exclusive of \$70,000 paid to the sinking fund, for the redemption of the Albany loan.

The actual cost of the western section of the Western road, now nearly completed, is not yet fully ascertained. The last estimate which has been made, stated it at \$3,218,050; that of the eastern section at \$2,016,970; and that of the Albany and West Stockbridge at \$1,412,804; making a total of \$6,647,830. The funds provided for this expenditure to the 1st of January last, were the assessments of \$60 per share on the capital stock of 30,000 shares, making \$1,800,000; three loans of Massachusetts state scrip, amounting to \$4,000,000; and Albany city scrip of \$1,000,000, with a deduction of 10 per cent. for the sinking fund, \$900,000, making a total of \$6,700,000.

Of the scrip authorized by law to be advanced to the corporation, there had been received by them on the 31st of December last the amount of \$3,700,000, and the principal part of it was placed in the hands of their agents in Europe for sale. Of this scrip, bonds to the amount of \$1,463,555 56 had been sold previous to January 1, 1841, at various rates, from par to 4 per cent. advance, and producing the sum of \$1,485,777 78. Since that time, in consequence of the discredit into which American securities in general have fallen in Europe, no sales of the stock have been made, as it was not deemed expedient to submit to the sacrifice which would have been necessary to effect such sales; but considerable advances have been made upon it by the agents in Europe, and loans have been obtained on the same security in this country. Neither the State scrip, nor that of the city of Albany, has been offered at less than par. To have thrown the stock upon the market for the purpose of meeting the immediate wants of the corporation, would have been injurious to the credit of the State, as well as a sacrifice of the interests of the corporation. The directors, therefore, deemed it expedient to resort to another course. They promptly resolved upon levying two additional assessments of \$10 each per share, payable on the 20th of January, and 1st of February. This unexpected call upon the stockholders was met by them with cheerfulness, under the conviction that it was the most eligible course which could be adopted, and before the second assessment became due, the sum of \$114,000 had been paid on the call. Since that time a farther assessment of \$20 a share has been levied, making the whole amount which can be legally assessed, payable on the 1st day of March, 1842.

It was mentioned in the former article above referred to, [Vol. II. p. 260,] that the Western railroad corporation had entered into an agreement with the Albany and West Stockbridge railroad company, to construct the railroad from the State line to Albany, in considera-

tion of being permitted during the period of said lease to have the management and control thereof, and to receive the tolls and income of the same. In pursuance of this agreement, an indenture was entered into and executed on the 18th of November, 1841, by the Albany and West Stockbridge railroad company of the first part, and the Western railroad corporation of the second part, by which the first-named party, in consideration of the covenants entered into by the other, leased to the said party of the second part, their successors and assigns, the whole of the said Albany and West Stockbridge railroad, with all the property, rights, and privileges thereto appertaining, including the right to receive the bonds or scrip of the city of Albany, to the amount of \$1,000,000, to be issued to aid in the construction of said road, and to be made payable one quarter in twenty-five years, one half in thirty years, and one quarter in thirty-five years, with interest semi-annually, on the 1st days of January and July, the interest and principal to be paid at the office of the Western railroad corporation in Boston, and with full power of using the said railroad and property, and of establishing and collecting tolls, fares, and rates of compensation, for their own use and benefit, as freely as the party of the first part could do. The lease is for the full term of the continuance of the date, and any renewals or extension of the same, and is subject to the mortgage of the said property and rights to the city of Albany to secure the payment of the principal and interest of the said bonds. The party of the second part engage, as a rent or compensation for the use of the said road, punctually to pay the interest on the said bonds, as it shall fall due, and after applying the proceeds of the sinking fund to pay any balance which may be due of the principal, they agree to finish the construction of the railroad, with at least a single track, and with the necessary depots, engines, and cars, and to open the same for the public accommodation. They also agree, that in case the New York and Albany railroad shall be finished, so far as to unite with the Albany and West Stockbridge railroad near Chatham Four Corners, they will either permit the said company upon the payment of a reasonable compensation, to use with their engines that part of the road between the point of junction and Greenbush, in such manner as not to interfere with or interrupt the regulations of the Western railroad company; or that they will transport over the said portion of the road the passengers and merchandise of the regular trains of the New York and Albany railroad company, on as favorable terms as they transport the average of passengers and similar merchandise on other parts of their said road, between the point of junction and Worcester, and without any other delay than may be necessary to avoid collision with other trains; cars to be provided by the New York and

Albany railroad company, and to be returned within reasonable periods by the Western railroad corporation. It is farther agreed, that in case of any disagreement in the execution of these provisions, the matter in issue shall be decided by three commissioners, to be appointed by the Chancellor of the state of New York.

The *Norwich and Worcester* railroad, which forms the remaining principal branch in this line of roads, has been already described in our former Numbers, [Vol. I. p. 265, and Vol. II. p. 268.] The receipts of income on this road during the year 1841 amounted to \$151,927, of which \$99,332 were received for the transportation of passengers, and \$52,595 for freight. Of the passenger receipts, considerably more than half, or \$58,784 were derived from passengers in the steamboat train, which forms a part of the daily line of communication between Boston and New York.

The expenses during the year amounted to \$64,039, of which \$6,322 were for repairs of road, \$7,762 for repairs of engines and cars; and \$16,782 for fuel.

The second line of railroads, leading from Boston in a northerly direction, consists of the *Boston and Lowell* road, 26 miles in length; the *Nashua and Lowell*, 14 1-4 miles in length; and the *Boston and Portland*, in Massachusetts and New Hampshire, 54 miles in length. These roads are already completed for the distances here named, making a length of railroad of 94 1-4 miles, now in operation. For the farther extension of the line, the Nashua and Concord railroad, in New Hampshire, 34 miles in length, is far advanced towards completion, and will be opened in the ensuing summer; and the Boston and Portland railroad is in progress of farther extension, from Dover to Somersworth, on the border of the state of Maine, and in a direction towards Portland. It is the purpose of the proprietors to obtain authority to unite this railroad with that now in progress from Portsmouth to Portland, at a point between Somersworth and Kennebunk. But should it be extended only to Somersworth, the addition thus made to the present length, together with the Nashua and Concord road, will give an extension to this line of roads, to be completed in the ensuing season, of about 132 miles in all.

In the course of the past season, the whole of the second track of the Boston and Lowell railroad has been completed. It is formed throughout of heavy T rails, weighing 56 lbs. to a yard in length, laid upon cross-sleepers of stone, these being placed upon a bed of gravel two and a half feet in depth. The rails originally laid on the first track, weighing only 36 lbs. to the yard, having been found too light, have been taken up from seven miles of the road, during the last summer, and replaced by the heavier rails above described.

The business of the Nashua and Lowell, and the Boston and Portland railroads, which is transacted in Boston, by passing over the Boston and Lowell road, is managed in a different manner from that of the Western, and Norwich and Worcester roads, which passes over the Boston and Worcester road. In the latter case, the two companies which form the line of transportation are regarded as copartners in the transportation, and the passengers and freight are taken indifferently, in the cars of either corporation, all which pass over both roads, each corporation furnishing its due proportion for the joint business; but each company owning and directing exclusively the locomotives on its own road, and each having the charge of freight and passengers, and the sale of tickets on its own road, and accounting to the other for that proportion of the receipts which belongs to it. There is consequently but one set of agents in Boston for the business of the three roads.

The Nashua and Boston and Portland railroads, on the contrary, have separate freight-houses, and also their own agents, in Boston, for the reception and delivery of freight, and the loading and unloading of cars, and use their own passenger cars exclusively for the conveyance of passengers, who are to be transported over any part of their own road, to or from any part of the Lowell road. We find, accordingly, in the returns of the Lowell railroad, distinct amounts returned, as received for passengers and freight on that road exclusively, and for like transportation in the cars of the other roads. The accounts of the Boston and Lowell corporation for the last year exhibit the following results :

The amount of capital stock paid in, is \$1,800,000. The whole amount expended on account of construction, to the 30th of November last, is \$1,834,893, of which amount, \$105,650 have been expended within the last year.

The current expenses of the last year amounted to \$119,469, of which \$33,193 are expended for repairs of roads and bridges, including \$14,638 for laying down the heavy rail on 7 miles of the road; \$22,644 for repairs of engines and cars; and \$63,632 for fuel, oil, salaries, wagons, loading merchandise, &c.

The receipts of income for the year amounted to \$267,541, viz. : from passengers conveyed in cars of the Lowell road, \$92,876; for freight in cars of the road, \$90,229; mail, rents, &c., \$1,897; passengers in cars of the Nashua road, \$34,507; freight in cars of the Nashua road, \$23,544; passengers in cars of the Boston and Maine road, \$18,570; freight in do., \$5,917.

Two semi-annual dividends have been declared and paid, each of 4 per cent., amounting to \$144,000.

This railroad has entered into a contract to furnish the Charlestown

Branch railroad, with a locomotive engine and tender, for hauling passengers or merchandise over that road for \$25 a day, including the services of enginemen and fireman, with fuel, water, and oil for the engine and tender. Every day on which the engine is required to run is to be reckoned as a full day, and the engine to run, if desired, 50 miles per day, or such distance as to average fifty per day. Should the average run exceed 50 miles per day, a further sum of 50 cents per mile is to be paid for the excess.

The *Nashua and Lowell* railroad has a capital paid in of \$380,000, and the same amount has been expended in the construction of the road, and for engines and other property. The earnings of the road in the year 1841, including the receipts for transport of passengers and merchandise in its cars over the Boston and Lowell road, amounted to \$132,497. Of this amount \$75,733 were received for passengers, and \$55,700 for freight, and \$55,900 were paid to the Boston and Lowell road, for transportation over the whole length of that road. The sum of \$1,861 was also paid to the Charlestown Branch railroad corporation and wharf company, for the use of their railroad and wharf. The cost of road repairs was \$2,762, and of repairs of engines and cars, \$8,263. There were two dividends of 4 per cent. each made the last year, amounting to \$30,400. On the completion of the Nashua and Concord railroad, by which this line will be extended to the capital of New Hampshire, the travel and transportation over the Nashua and Lowell road will be doubtless considerably increased.

The *Boston and Portland* railroad, which diverges from the Boston and Lowell road at Wilmington, at a distance of 15 miles from Boston, has been lengthened from station to station, at successive periods. It was opened to Newmarket in July last, and to its present termination in September. It has now reached the great manufacturing town of Dover, and it will soon be extended to the Great Falls in Somersworth, on the border of the state of Maine. The capital paid in is \$519,799, and the amount expended in the construction of the road, and on its appendages, \$553,280. The amount of its income during the last year was \$116,016; of which \$85,928 were received from passengers, and \$25,291 from freight. Of this sum \$25,139 were paid to the Boston and Lowell road, it being the amount which accrued to that corporation for the transport over that road.

The third line of railroads, leaving Boston in a southerly direction, consists of the *Boston and Providence* road, 41 miles in length, with a branch of two miles leading to Dedham, the *Taunton Branch* road, diverging from the Providence at Mansfield, 24 miles from Boston, 11 miles in length; the *New Bedford and Taunton* railroad, which

is an extension of the Taunton Branch, in nearly a right line, 20 miles in length. These three roads, which are immediately connected, and are traversed by the same cars, drawn, however, by locomotives belonging to their respective roads, have an extent of 72 miles, all within the state of Massachusetts. Near the termination of the Boston and Providence road, on the opposite side of the river, commences the New York and Boston railroad, leading from Providence to Stonington, 47 miles, and completing the line of communication by means of the Providence road, and a line of steamboats, between New York and Boston. This railroad, which is well built of a heavy T rail, at a cost of more than \$2,000,000, forms a very important adjunct to the Boston and Providence road, by rendering much more direct and expeditious the route to New York, and greatly increasing the travel over it. With the addition of this road, the southerly line from Boston has an extent of 121 miles.

The capital of the Boston and Providence railroad paid in is \$1,782,000. The receipts of income in the year 1841 amounted to \$230,821, of which \$152,015 were received from passengers, and \$75,108 for the transportation of merchandise. The expenses amounted to \$122,057, of which \$24,474 were for repairs of road, \$12,722 for repairs of engines and cars. Two dividends of 3 per cent. were paid, amounting to \$106,920. The number of miles run with locomotives was 107,638, of which 79,510 miles were run by passenger trains, and 28,128 by freight trains.

The *Taunton Branch* railroad has a capital paid in of \$250,000. The receipts of income in 1841 amounted to \$76,925, of which \$52,279 were received for the transportation of passengers, and \$22,442 for freight. The cars of this road run over the Boston and Providence road, from Mansfield to Boston, drawn by the engines of the latter road, and the agents of this corporation take the fare and freight for the whole. The amount payable to the Boston and Providence road, for the transportation of the passengers and freight to and from the Taunton Branch, was \$32,595. The cost of road repairs was \$1,878, and of repairs of engines and cars, \$2,253. Two dividends were paid, one of 3 1-2 and the other of 4 per cent. The number of miles run by passenger trains over the *Taunton Branch* was 13,787, by merchandise trains 6,886, and for clearing snow from the track, 143.

The *New Bedford and Taunton* railroad has a capital paid in of \$400,000. The receipts of income in 1841, amounted to \$52,513, of which \$39,469 were from passengers, and 8,180 for transportation of merchandise. The expenses during the year amounted to \$22,285, of which \$3,416 were for repairs of road, and \$3,654 for repairs of engines and cars. Two dividends were paid of 3 per cent.

each, amounting to \$24,000. The number of miles run by locomotive engines was 27,039, the greater part of which was with trains consisting of passenger and freight cars together. The amount of freight transported on the road has increased considerably during the last year.

The fourth line of railroads leading from Boston, is that which begins at East Boston, and runs in a northeasterly direction to the state of Maine. This line consists of the *Eastern* railroad, in Massachusetts, which is 38 miles in length, exclusive of the Marblehead Branch, which is 3 miles; the *Eastern* railroad in New Hampshire, which is 15 1-2 miles, extending from the line of Massachusetts to Portsmouth; and the *Portsmouth and Portland* railroad, in Maine, extending from the termination of the New Hampshire section of the Eastern railroad, at Portsmouth, to Portland, a distance of 49 miles. The two first portions of this line, 56 1-2 miles in length, including the Marblehead Branch, are completed, and have been in operation during the last year; the other portion has been recently opened for 14 miles, from Portland to a point near Saco, and the residue is yet under the hands of the contractors, and will be finished in the course of the ensuing summer. The length of the line, when completed, from Boston to Portland, will be 101 miles.

The *Eastern* railroad, in Massachusetts, has a capital paid in, of \$1,600,000, with a loan on State scrip of \$500,000, making \$2,100,000. The cost of the road, and all other property, (including property not required for the use of the road, and intended to be sold, valued at \$162,213,) to the 31st of December last, was \$2,289,285. The cost of the 15 1-2 miles of road in New Hampshire, was \$350,000. This road belongs to an independent corporation, established under a charter from the legislature of New Hampshire; but the road and all its franchises are leased for a long term of years to the Massachusetts company, with the exclusive right of managing it, in connexion with their own road, and of receiving the whole income, on condition of keeping it in repair, and of paying to the stockholders the same dividends of profits, as are paid to the stockholders of their own company. In the above statement of cost of the Massachusetts road, are included the engines and *materiel* required for the operations on the whole line. The cost of the line, therefore, from Boston to Portsmouth, a distance of 53 1-2 miles, with its appurtenances, is \$2,639,285.

The exact length of the Eastern railroad, from the ferry at East Boston to the Massachusetts line, is 38 miles and 1063 feet. In passing over the undulating surface of ground, it is graded in 84 planes, 26 of which, measuring 12 miles 3,210 feet, are level, and the 58

others have different rates of inclination, varying from 7 feet to 40 feet per mile. One plane only, 1,600 feet in length, is of so high a grade as 40 feet per mile; 5, measuring 3 miles 2,110 feet, are of 33 and 35 feet grade, and no others exceed 30 feet in a mile. There is no long continued succession of ascending planes, so that no part of the road rises to a great elevation. There is very little objectionable curvature on the road. The shortest curves, and those are of limited extent, are on a radius of 2,865 feet, and nearly 29 miles of it are straight. The chief part of the road is built with a single track, and is 21 feet in width. The form of construction differs in some respects from that of any other railroad, and is thus described in the report of the directors: "There are undersills of 4-inch hemlock plank, 11 inches wide, resting at the joints on pieces of 2-inch plank, 4 feet long. Sleepers are placed transversely on the undersills, 3 feet apart, on each of which is fixed an elevated chair for each rail, which is thereby supported and secured by keys. The rail weighs 46 1-2 lbs. per yard. The sleepers are entirely covered by gravel." The chief difference in the form of construction between it and some other railroads, is in the greater elevation and size of the chairs, which admit of the sleepers being entirely covered with gravel, and a space being yet left between the rail and the bed of the road, for the free passage of water, and the more easily keeping the track clear of snow. Between Salem and Lynn, a distance of five miles, a double track is laid.

On the Marblehead branch the grades vary from 15 to 40 feet per mile, and there are several curves varying from 800 to 1,700 feet radius. The rails are formed of sleepers of yellow pine, with an iron plate 2 1-2 inches wide, and 5-8ths of an inch thick.

The number of passengers transported in 1841, on the main road, was 452,966, the receipts from which amounted to \$253,352; and on the Marblehead Branch the number of passengers was 35,060, producing the sum of \$4,382. The average receipt from each passenger on the main road was about 56 cents, and on the Marblehead Branch, 12 1-2 cents. The number of miles run during the year on the main road, with passengers, was 137,388, and on the Branch, 16,811. The distance run by freight trains was 14,376, and by gravel trains, 22,634.

The amount of receipts during the year was \$299,574, of which \$257,735 were derived from passengers, \$12,256 from freight, \$12,415 from hauling of gravel, \$9,521 for conveying mail, and \$7,647 from rents and interest.

The expenditures, exclusive of dividends and interest on the State loan, amounted to \$154,957, of which \$27,553 were for road re-

pairs, \$17,821 for repair of engines and cars, and \$11,638 for East Boston ferry. The interest on the State loan amounted to \$25,000, and a dividend of 6 per cent. was paid to the stockholders in both the Massachusetts and New Hampshire corporations.

Of the Portsmouth and Portland road little is to be said at present, except that the work is under contract along the whole line, and due diligence is used to complete it with as little delay as possible. It is to be of a form of construction similar to that of the Western road, with a heavy T rail. It is to be united with the Eastern railroad at Portsmouth, by means of a bridge over the Piscataqua River, to be erected on piles, with a track for common carriages beneath the railway track. Fourteen miles of the road, at the eastern extremity, are already opened and in daily use. The finished portion would have been extended from Portland to Saco, but for a remarkable sinking of an embankment, 50 feet in height, with a culvert, at the crossing of a creek called Goose Fair Brook. The meadow through which this brook flows, and across which it is attempted to carry the embankment, covers a bed of blue clay, which is very soft and almost fluid, and of great depth. The meadow, however, is not of great width, and the obstacle will, doubtless, be surmounted without serious difficulty.

Some of the principal facts relating to the Massachusetts railroads are recapitulated in the following tables. The first column of figures in the first table shows the amount of capital paid in, together with the amount of State loan which has been granted to three of the corporations. The two columns of lengths of roads, show what part of the respective roads is within, and what part out of the state of Massachusetts. The last column but one in that table shows the number of miles run by trains of cars drawn by locomotives in the year 1841; and the last column the number of miles with passenger cars exclusively.

	Capital paid and State Loan.	Amount Expended.	L'gth in Mass.	L'gth out of Mass.	Total.	Miles run in 1841 with Passengers.
Boston and Lowell,	1,800,000	1,834,893	26		125,296	67,192
Boston and Worcester,	2,300,000	2,324,448	45		165,217	97,233
Boston and Providence,	1,782,000	1,798,397	41		107,638	79,510
East in Mass. & N. H.,	2,450,000	2,639,285	38	15½	191,209	
Taunton Branch,	250,000	250,000	11		20,816	13,787
N. Bedford & Taunton,	400,600	422,758	20		27,039	
Nashua and Lowell,	380,000	380,000	7½	7	43,510	32,790
Norwich & Worcester,	2,000,000	2,157,037	19½	39½		
Boston and Portland,	519,799	553,290	20	32	99,068	74,316
Western, & A. & W. S.,	6,744,995	6,057,997	117	38	160,106	
Total,	18,625,794	18,418,107	344½	139		

Receipts in 1841.

	From Passengers.	From Freight.	Mail and Miscell.	Total.
Boston and Lowell,	145,953	119,691	1,097	267,541
Boston and Worcester,	190,097	110,001	10,709	310,806
Boston and Providence,	152,015	71,011	7,794	230,821
Eastern,	257,735	12,256	29,582	299,574
Taunton Branch,	52,279	22,442	2,204	* 44,330
New Bedford and Taunton,	39,469	8,181	4,863	52,513
Nashua and Lowell,	75,733	55,700	1,064	* 76,597
Norwich and Worcester,	99,332	52,594	3,334	155,261
Boston and Portland,	85,928	25,291	4,797	* 90,877
Western, and Alb. & W. S.,	113,842	64,467	4,000	182,309
	1,212,383	541,634	69,445	1,710,631

* These returns do not embrace the sums paid to the Lowell and Providence railroads, as they are embraced in the returns for those roads. The corresponding items, however, under the columns of receipts for passengers and freight, embrace the amounts paid to those roads, and these items are accordingly included twice within those columns.

*Expenses in 1841.**Dividends in 1841.*

	Repairs of Road.	Rep. Eng's. and Cars.	Total Expenses.	Rate.	Amount.
Boston and Lowell,	33,193	22,644	119,469	8 per ct.	144,000
Boston and Worcester,	31,811	25,286	162,998	7 " "	152,000
Boston and Providence,	24,474	12,722	122,057	6 " "	106,920
Eastern,	27,553	17,821	154,968	6 " "	135,166
Taunton Branch,	1,879	2,253	22,448	7½ " "	18,750
New Bedford and Taunton,	3,416	3,654	22,285	6 " "	24,000
Nashua and Lowell,	2,762	8,263	38,205	8 " "	30,400
Norwich and Worcester,	6,332	7,722	78,805	8 " "	32,000
Boston and Portland,	8,023	5,304	41,882	4½ " "	23,422
Western,	20,208	16,979	104,806		
Total,	159,651	130,370	867,913		

From the foregoing table it will be perceived that the average cost of all the railroads, including the portions of them extending out of the State, with their depot stations, engines, cars, and other property, have cost an amount nearly equal to an average of \$40,000 per mile. It will be observed, also, that the railroads which lead directly from Boston already afford a net income of from 6 to 8 per cent.

ARTICLE III.

RAILROADS IN FRANCE.

THE French Government has again resolved on recommending to the Legislative Chambers the adoption of measures for establishing, at the national expense, several great lines of railway, leading from Paris, by way of the chief commercial and manufacturing towns, to the frontiers of the kingdom. Projects of this nature have been much discussed in France for many years, and several schemes for railroads, on some of the principal lines of communication, to be established by private enterprise, with aid from the government, after having been partially matured, have been abandoned, without coming to any useful result. There is, therefore, no grand line of railway, bearing any comparison with the principal works in England, or even in this country, yet completed in France. The railway from Paris to Rouen, undertaken by a company of French and English capitalists, will be of this character, but it is yet unfinished. There are several other works of considerable magnitude, and of great cost; but they are either of limited extent, being confined to the immediate vicinity of Paris, or they are upon routes comparatively unimportant, and which do not command any great portion of the public travel, such as that from St. Etienne to Lyons, and that from Strasburgh to Bale.

As early as the year 1833, the French government appropriated 500,000 francs to defray the expense of surveys and estimates of works on the most important lines of communication, and in the course of two years, five lines had been sufficiently explored and surveyed to be pronounced practicable, and capable of realizing the benefits of this rapid mode of communication. These lines were those which lead from Paris to Lille, to Havre, to Strasburgh, to Lyons, and to Bordeaux. The difficulty and cost of the undertaking deterred the government from proceeding further at that time.

In 1837, the government again turned their attention to the subject, and proposed to the Chambers a project, by which encouragement should be offered, by the advance of specific sums of money, for the construction of six distinct lines of railway, to be undertaken by companies, under grants for periods of years, reserving to the government the right of purchasing the works, by indemnifying the stockholders on certain principles to be established, and also the right of revising the rates of fare at certain periods. Among these lines were those from Paris to Rouen, from Paris to Orleans, and from Paris to the frontiers of Belgium. This project was submitted to the

Chamber of Deputies, but after discussion it was rejected. All that was granted was the privilege, by private companies, to undertake the works exclusively at their own risk, and in regard to the principal lines, this grant of authority led to no result.

In the following year the government again brought the subject to the attention of the Chamber of Deputies. They submitted a project of a law for the establishment of a system of railways consisting of nine principal lines, seven of them leading from Paris, viz., to the Belgian frontier, to Havre, to Nantes, to Bayonne, to Strasburgh through the central regions of France, to Strasburgh by Nancy, and to Marseilles by Lyons; and in addition to these, one from Marseilles by way of Toulouse to Bordeaux, and one from Marseilles to Bale, by way of Lyons and Besançon. This stupendous project proposed an extent of railway equal to 2,750 miles in length, at a cost of 1,000,000,000 of francs. It was not, however, proposed to undertake the whole project at once, but to limit the present efforts to the route from Paris to Belgium, Paris to Rouen, Paris to Bordeaux, by way of Orleans and Tours, and from Marseilles to Avignon. This project was submitted to a committee, of which M. Arago was the reporter. He went into an examination of the subject, and presented reasons why the project should not be adopted. He argued that these works should not be undertaken by the state, but should be abandoned to the enterprise of private companies, and concluded by recommending that the project should be rejected. The Minister of Public Works, M. Martin du Noid, maintained the opinion that the government ought to undertake exclusively the great lines of communication, and leave the secondary lines to private enterprise. After a long discussion, into which a number of members of the Chamber entered, the project was rejected, by 196 black balls to 69 white.

The most important railroad, undertaken at an early period in France, was that from St. Etienne to Lyons, designed chiefly for the transport of the coal, and the heavy manufactures of that region. This enterprise proved unsuccessful, partly from the difficulties of the route, and partly from the want of skill in the construction, and also in part from the insufficient rates of fare established by law, for the transport both of passengers and of merchandise.

The favorite projects of speculators in stocks were of railroads leading from Paris to the neighboring towns. One was authorized to be constructed from Paris to St. Germain. Two grants were also obtained by rival parties for a railroad from Paris to Versailles, one by the right, and the other by the left bank of the Seine. Attempts were made to compromise the claims of the parties, by uniting them in favor of one project, and abandoning the other, but the prospects

of immense profits from these projects were so captivating, that neither party could be induced to yield, or to divide their interest in their respective enterprises, and it was resolved to proceed with them both. They, however, both proved to be much more expensive than had been anticipated, so that both capitals would have been insufficient for the completion of one road, and the stocks of both were much depressed.

The railroad of St. Germain was first opened on the 26th of August, 1837. This ceremony took place in presence of an immense concourse of the population, who were attracted by the novelty of the scene. The locomotives, with carriages and wagons, traversed the road industriously through the day, conveying gratuitously as many persons as the carriages would contain. It was computed that 10,000 persons on that day made the excursion from Paris to St. Germain. The passage was made in about 30 minutes.

The length of this railroad is 18,430 metres, or about 11 1-2 English miles. On more than two thirds of the line, the road is upon an embankment of 15 to 20 feet in height. It passes through two tunnels, crosses the Seine twice on three bridges, and crosses fifteen common roads, in every instance passing either above or below their level. The tunnel of Paris, near the commencement of the road, is 193 metres in length, 16 metres or 49 feet in depth, 13 1-3 metres in width, and has four tracks. It was begun in May, 1836, and finished in February following. The tunnel of Batignolles is 188 metres in length. It was begun in June 1836, and finished in the following March.

About two years afterwards a branch of this railway, at the expense however of an independent company, was completed to Versailles, and six or eight months later still, another branch was opened to St. Cloud. Very low rates of fare were established upon these railroads, and the number of travellers was immense. From an official report, which was made upon the operations of these roads to the 31st of July, 1840, when the line to St. Germain had been open two years and eleven months, that to Versailles ten months, and that to St. Cloud two and a half months, it appears that the number of passengers which had been carried was as follows:

On the St. Germain road,	3,716,416 passengers.
On the Versailles, "	1,079,202 "
On the St. Cloud, "	119,541 "

In the month of August, 1840, the whole number of passengers on the three branches of the road was 361,910, and the amount of receipts 391,974 francs, making an average of 11,624 daily.

On the 10th of September, 1840, was opened the railway from

Paris to Versailles, on the left of the Seine. About a thousand persons, among whom were many public officers, were carried over the line in four trains, which made the passage to Versailles in an average period of 28 minutes, and the return passage in 22. A part of the country through which this route passes, the plain of the Issy, and particularly near the Lower Meudon, where the numerous windings of the Seine open to view, and at the valley and viaduct of the Fleury, is highly picturesque and beautiful. The number of passengers on this road, in the three first weeks from its opening, was 69,732, and the receipts 83,471 francs. On the opening of this road, there was a considerable falling off in the number of those by the road of the right bank. The whole number to St. Germain and Versailles in September by this road, was 266,909, and the receipts 282,254, compared with 295,215 received in the same month of the preceding year. In August, 1841, the passengers on both roads of the right bank were 326,439, and the receipts 377,219 francs; by the road of the left bank, passengers 147,000, and receipts 175,447. The number of passengers in these statements includes those who stop or are taken up at the way stations, the number of which is comparatively small. It will be perceived, from the proportion of receipts to the number of passengers, that the fare is very low. The average receipt from each passenger from Paris to St. Germain, is about 21 cents of our money, or a fraction short of two cents a mile. The average receipt from each passenger to Versailles, by both roads, is about the same.

The cost of these roads far exceeded the original computation. That by the right bank, with the advantage of the previous construction of the road to St. Germain, with which it unites at the village of Asnieres, cost the immense sum of 14,000,000 of francs, the original estimate having been only 4,000,000. A part of this extravagant cost was occasioned by the natural obstacles of the route, which required costly tunnels, that of the Park of St. Cloud being 1,600 feet in length, and high embankments, and a part, by some of the very useless exactions of the law, requiring a uniform grade, and a rigid adherence to a straight line, when a slight deviation might have effected a great saving of expense. The road by the left bank began also with a capital of 4,000,000 of francs. When this was expended, another 4,000,000 were added, and again 2,000,000 more. When these 10,000,000 were expended, the work, which was far from being finished, came to a stand, and the shares, which had cost 1,000 francs, fell to 150. An application was made to the Chamber of Deputies to aid, with little hope of success; but the application was favorably received. A loan of 5,000,000 francs was granted, and the company was relieved from some onerous obligations, one of which

was to extend the route from the barrier of the Maine to the street of Assas, in Paris. This relief enabled the company to go on and complete the work, and they are now both in operation as above stated.

At a meeting of the proprietors of the Versailles railroad of the right branch, for the purpose of authorizing a loan for the increase of the *matériel* for the working of the road, a statement was made of the cost, together with that of the increased *matériel* then prepared. The aggregate amount was 14,909,308 francs. Of this sum, the amount expended for the Versailles road, including the St. Cloud branch, after deducting the value of disposable property not required for the purpose of the road, was 11,324,123 francs ; for interest, &c., 394,000 francs ; and for the proportion of the *matériel* of transport, and the machine-shop belonging to this road, \$3,191,177 francs. This was independent of the capital of the St. Germain road, which furnishes the track for both roads, so far as they unite. The two roads are operated in conjunction. The materiel of the two united, the cost of which amounted to 4,742,766 francs, includes 51 locomotive engines, as many tenders, and 205 diligences and wagons for passengers, besides baggage and freight wagons.

Notwithstanding the vast number of passengers on these three railroads, the number did not equal the expectation of speculators in the stocks, and the cost of working the roads was greater, from the excessively low rates of fare, to which the companies are restricted by the conditions of their charters, and from which improvident condition the companies have in vain endeavored to get relieved. The profit affords a very inadequate compensation for the capital invested. The shares, for a long period before, as well as after the opening, were at a great discount from the par value, and subject to great fluctuations, in proportion as the prospect was encouraging of relief by an increase of the rates of fare. In the beginning of July, 1839, a month before the opening of the Versailles road of the right bank, the shares of the St. Germain road commanded 625 *a* 650 francs for shares of 1,000 francs. The Versailles of the right bank brought 650 *a* 675 ; the Versailles of the left bank, the works of which were then discontinued for the want of funds, after the expenditure of 12,000,000 francs, were selling at 142 1-2 *a* 145 francs. On the passing of the law, authorizing the loan of 5,000,000 francs to the last named road, the shares rose at once to 365 *a* 375 francs, but they soon after began to decline. When the prospect abated of relief by an increase of the fares, the shares of the three roads declined rapidly. In the course of the week ending September 16, the St. Germain shares fell from 590 to 532 1-2 ; the Versailles of the right bank from 565 to 530 ; and the left bank from 325 to 275. From that date to the present,

the shares of the three roads have been subject to great fluctuations ; and on the 12th of December last, those of the St. Germain road were quoted on the Paris Exchange at 745 a 755 ; those of the Versailles of the right bank at 312 1-2 a 317 1-2 ; and those of the left bank at 197 1-2.

The unfavorable result of these three works had tended greatly to discourage similar enterprises in France. Several others have been undertaken in different parts of France, without much greater success. Among these are the Paris and Orleans railroad, which has been opened only to Corbeil, a distance of about 20 miles, and there suspended. The railroad from Strasburgh to Bale, a distance of 87 miles, along the course of the Rhine, was prosecuted under many discouragements, and at last completed, through the energy of some of its principal proprietors. Its shares are greatly depressed. The railroad from St. Etienne to Lyons, the first constructed in France, has been a work of great utility, but ruinous to the proprietors, from the low rate of tolls. There are several minor roads, among which are one from Montpellier to Cette, one from Nismes to Alais, and one from Bordeaux to Teste. There is also one of greater magnitude, in which English capitalists and English engineers are associated with those of France, the work of which is now going on with activity, from Paris to Rouen.

In these various enterprises, independently of the last named, the capitalists of Paris have invested near 150,000,000 francs, all of which is expended in works which afford a very inadequate income, and the shares of which are consequently selling much below par. Notwithstanding these discouragements, a very strong desire has been manifested by the people of France to undertake a system of railroads of a national character, which shall facilitate the communications throughout the country, and give a spur to the national industry. They seem impatient at remaining so far behind their neighbors on the opposite side of the Channel, as well as in Belgium and Germany, in improvements of this character. They perceive, also, that without some effort to keep pace with their neighbors in their means of communication, they are in danger of being cut off from a portion of the advantages of their position. The railroads of Belgium, by opening a channel of communication between England and Germany, so much more direct and rapid than that through France, or even to the heart of France, have produced a sensible change in the course of trade. In passing from England to Switzerland, there is no temptation to take the route through France, since that by way of Ostend, the Belgian railroad, and the Rhine, is so much easier and more rapid. The different projects for works of a national character, traversing the whole kingdom, have therefore never been lost sight of, but have been

brought forward in various forms. These are on the lines before mentioned, leading in different directions from Paris to the frontier.

The western route, from Paris to Havre, is already in a successful train for being early completed, by the company who have now in hand the road from Paris to Rouen. This company, though not pledged to carry their work further than to Rouen, will probably extend it to Havre, as it will otherwise be incomplete. The navigation of the Seine by steamboats, which is relied on for the residue of the line, is so liable to interruptions, and is so circuitous by the windings of the river, that it will probably be found for the interest of the company to complete the road from Paris to Havre.

The route next in order, and which is regarded as of great importance, is the northern, which shall unite Paris with Belgium and the Belgian railroads, at Valenciennes and Lille, and with Calais, the nearest port to the coast of England. Several routes to Calais have been considered, but that by way of Lille, and thence in a direction towards Dunkirk as well as Calais, seems to be preferred, on account of the importance of the former of these ports as a place of commerce, which is at present sacrificed to the superior advantages of Ostend and Antwerp. To satisfy these several objects, a line of road, 250 miles in length, will be required. Calais, on account of the shortness of the passage between it and Dover, which is accomplished in the space of two and a half hours, it is thought will possess a decided advantage over every other for commanding the travel between England and the Continent, provided it can be made to possess equal facilities of access to the interior. This consideration makes it an important object with the French government to establish a railroad, in as direct a line as possible, between it and Paris, in the expectation that it will thus become the preferred route between Paris and London. With such a railroad, when the London and Southeastern railroad, which is now advanced, shall be completed, terminating at Dover, the journey between the two capitals will be performed in the compass of a single day.

The next route, and one which is more important than any other, is that from Paris to Lyons and Marseilles, a distance of 550 miles. For the present, however, it is proposed to rely upon the navigation of the Rhone and the Saone by steamers, for a part of this line of communication, and to limit the railroads to a line from Paris, by the province of Burgundy, to the Saone, and a shorter line from Beaucaille, or Avignon, on the Rhone, to Marseilles. This reduces the length of railway on this line to a little over 300 miles. It is ascertained that the mountain ridge which divides the waters of the Seine and the Atlantic from those of the Rhone and the Mediterranean, may be surmounted on this route by a gradual inclination, not ex-

ceeding four metres in a thousand, or 21 feet in a mile, in any part from Paris to the summit. The line branches from that of Orleans at Corbeil, and following the valleys of the Seine, the Yonne, the Armancon, and the Ouche, it reaches a natural gap in the mountain, which seems designed by nature to favor the route, and to dispense with the necessity of a tunnel. From this opening, the descent is gradual to Dijon and Chalons, where it meets the navigable part of the Saone, and unites with the steamboat lines to Lyons and Avignon. It is stated that more than 220,000 passengers now traverse the route annually between Lyons and Paris, and that the steamboats bring daily to Chalons from 1,000 to 1,200 passengers. The line from Avignon and Beaucaire to Marseilles, 60 or 70 miles in length, presents no serious obstacles.

Another important route, and one which will greatly increase the value of the foregoing, is a diverging line from Dijon to Mulhausen, where it would connect with the railroad of Strasburgh and Bale, and with the great lines of communication on the Rhine and in Germany. Paris would thus be connected with the Rhine, Switzerland, and Germany, by means of the great route to the Mediterranean, diverging therefrom at Dijon, and a direct channel would be opened through France, from the Rhine and the north of Europe, to the Mediterranean. It is only necessary to look at the map, to perceive the value of these routes, if they can but be established and operated with the efficiency and certainty of the English and American railroads. Money is all that is necessary to accomplish this ; and, although the amount required is immense, the French government and people seem determined not to withhold it. The distance from Dijon to Mulhausen, on the Bale and Strasburgh railroad, is about 125 miles.

The line next in importance is that from Paris, by way of Tours, Bordeaux, and Bayonne, to the frontier of Spain, with a branch to Nantes. In addition to these, are many which interest chiefly particular cities or localities, and which cannot be advantageously embraced in any national system.

It would be difficult for one not accustomed to peruse the daily French journals, to imagine to what extent these systems of internal improvement have engrossed the public attention, for some years past. Questions of the preference to be given to particular schemes and routes, have been discussed with an earnestness proportioned to their importance, in their bearing upon particular local interests. The future prosperity of rich cities and communities depends, in a great degree, in many cases, on the contingency of their being embraced within these great lines of communication, or excluded from them to the benefit of some more fortunately situated rival city. The trading and manufacturing portions of the country, also, appear to be deeply

impressed, with the benefit which will result to the national industry, from the stimulus which will be given to it by facilities of intercourse which these works will afford.

The latest accounts from France state, that the Minister of Public Works, with the approbation of the government, was about to lay before the Chambers a new project of a law for a great system of railways. He proposes to proceed upon a different plan from either of those heretofore recommended. Taking advantage of the strong local interest felt in the most productive portions of the country, in favor of these improvements, he proposes a mixed system, by which part of the expense shall be borne by the national treasury, and the rest by *localities*; that is, by departments, cities, communes, and individuals. Branches will be reserved to private companies, to be assisted by the public, according to a system to be hereafter devised. The localities interested will be required to furnish the value of all the lands necessary for the roads; the state will execute the embankments, excavations, works of art, bridges, stations, &c.; and the localities will be required to lay down the rails, and prepare the road for use. It is computed that this plan will divide the expense nearly into two equal parts.

The report of the Minister admits the dilatoriness of France in the execution of these great enterprises. "Belgium," it says, "has 82 leagues of railroad executed and open, out of 140 leagues projected; England has 1,398 miles out of 2,187 projected; Germany has 180 leagues out of 1,800; whilst France, out of 540 leagues of railway necessary, has but a few leagues, not worth noting."

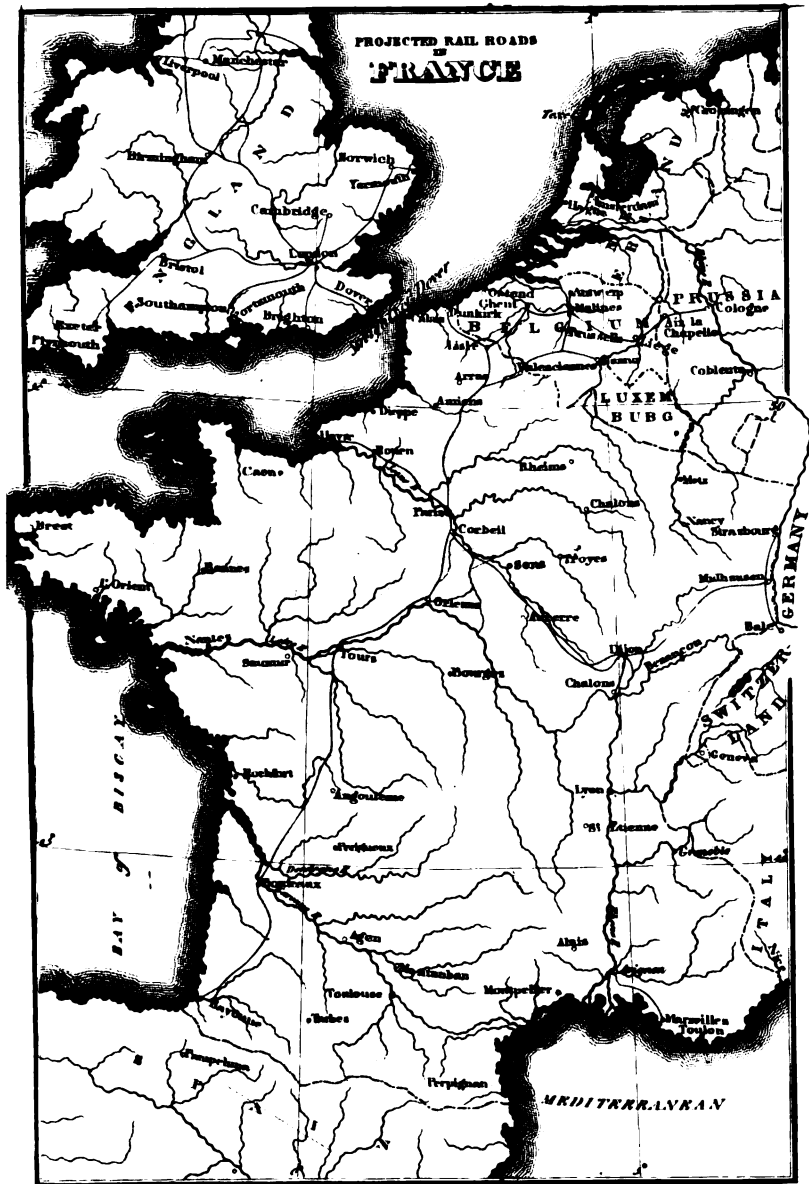
After describing the great lines which must enter into the system to be ultimately executed, the Minister proceeds to state the portion of it which it is proposed to undertake at the present time, as follows:

"The Anglo-Belgian line comes first. The surveys and studies for it can be finished before the end of 1842, as they are already completed as far as Creil. It is the most important in a political and commercial sense, and therefore ought to be the first railroad undertaken.

"The line from Paris to Marseilles is surveyed merely from Paris by Dijon, to Chalons-sur-Saone, and from Marseilles to the Rhone. Until the resources of the treasury permit the execution of the whole line, these portions of it may be first executed; they, moreover, being connected together by the steamers which navigate the Rhone and Saone. The difficulty of finding a sufficient number of skilful engineers is also a reason for not commencing five great lines at once.

"Government, therefore, confines its demands to credits for the following lines: 1. For the Anglo-Belgian line. 2. For the line between Marseilles and the Rhone. 3. For the line from Paris to Chalons-sur-Saone, by Dijon. A million of francs, over and above, will be demand-

PROJECTED RAIL ROADS
IN
FRANCE





ed in order to complete, before the end of 1843, the surveys of the three other lines."

The apprehension which is felt in France of the effects of the Belgian railroads is shown from the following extracts from a leading Paris journal. The following statement is quoted from one of the journals of Belgium :

"The commissioner charged with proposing means for extending the operations of the railroad, appears to concur with the Minister of Public Works as to the establishment of three national steamboats between Ostend and Dover. These steamers will be specially charged with the transport of despatches, passengers, and freight to Ostend, on the days when the English boats do not run.

"If the Chambers, as we do not doubt, allow the credits required for this improvement, it will immediately produce a certain increase in the railroad receipts, and will facilitate the mail communication with England; the mails will, necessarily, pass every day; for the English post-office, which does not intrust its despatches to foreign steamers, will be compelled to establish mutual exchanges, by sending a vessel from Dover to Ostend every day except Mondays.

"In this way, the correspondence from the west for a part of Germany, will pass through Belgium, where it will gain considerable time over the present means of communication, since between London and its destination, it will be conveyed by means of railroads, excepting in the passage of the Channel and the space between Liege and Aix-la-Chapelle, [which is in progress of execution]; for the London and Dover railroad will now soon be opened."

Upon the foregoing paragraphs the Paris Journal des Debats makes the following comment :

"This news, the truth of which cannot be doubted, shows the injury which the Belgian railroads may inflict on France, if we do not hasten to build ours. Calais, being the part of the Continent nearest England, every thing which passes from England to the Continent should pass through Calais, and *vice versa*. The nearly finished railroad from London to Dover favors this natural tendency. But the Belgian railroad now extends from Ostend only to Liege; it will in a few months be opened from Liege to Cologne. Even now, in spite of the gap which exists between Liege and Aix-la-Chapelle, Ostend supplants Calais, although the passage by sea from Dover to Ostend is three times that from Dover to the French port. Thus we shall lose the existing travel between England and Germany. We are told, that even the Italian silks, intended for England, which have hitherto gone through Lyons to Calais, begin to be carried by the Rhine, Cologne, and Ostend. It is, therefore, absolutely necessary, that the Calais road, the great importance of which none doubts, should be included in the bill which will be presented in the course of a few weeks."

We here close the present article ; but we shall take an early opportunity to present some further facts in relation to the railroads of France, and also to state the course which may be adopted upon the present recommendation to the Legislative Chambers.

To enable the reader to comprehend more readily the character and extent of the system of improvement meditated by the French Government, and its effect upon the intercourse of Paris with the remote parts of the kingdom, as well as upon that of France with the neighboring countries, we subjoin a map upon a small scale, which exhibits all these lines of communication at a single view. This map shows, also, how effectually the route through Belgium is likely to supersede the transit through France, for valuable goods as well as for travellers from Germany and Switzerland, to ports on the British Channel. By the aid of this map, the reader will be able to trace the several routes, upon any larger map of France or Europe.

In the report of the French Minister of Public Works, above quoted, there is an allusion to the railroads in Germany. A late European journal gives a statement of the extent of the German railways, on the authority of an article published in the Prussian State Gazette. This statement divides all the lines of railway into the following classes :

Miles finished,	175 1-3	which have cost	\$28,940,000
Miles in course of construction,	166 1-3	which will cost	43,357,000
Miles determined on,	124 1-4	estimated at	27,240,000
Miles projected,	363	proximate estimate,	30,586,000
Miles, lines of junction,	193	proximate estimate,	42,846,000
<hr/>			
Total number of miles,	1,022	Cost,	\$172,969,000

The Leipzig Gazette announces that the Austrian Government has decided on authorizing the construction of a railway between Vienna and Dresden, by the valley of the Elbe. It is expected that all possible favor will be conceded to the plan, and that there will even be the guaranty of an interest of 4 per cent.

To enable the reader to derive any precise information from the above statement, it may be necessary to add, that the miles are Prussian miles, each of which is equal to four and two thirds English miles, and the dollars are equal to 66 cents each, in American currency. The length of all the railroads finished and projected is, therefore, equal to 4,757 English miles, and the estimated cost of the whole \$114,159,000, or an average of \$24,000 a mile, American currency.

M I S C E L L A N Y .

LORENZO STARK :

OR, A GERMAN MERCHANT OF THE OLD SCHOOL.

[Translated from the German. — Continued from Vol. III. page 32.]

CHAPTER XXXI.

IT was painful to Madam Harvest, that the widow could find no end to her praises of the generosity of her father, and her own friendship ; but, much as she endeavored to turn the conversation, it always came back to the same point.

"I should have liked," said the Doctor's lady, at last, "to have spoken to you of my brother ; but I see ——"

At that moment the mouth of the widow closed, but her ears were only the more open.

"You cannot, perhaps, imagine, that behind the apparent cheerfulness, with which I came to visit you, I was hiding a very bitter sorrow. It is, however, the case. I have cause of regret on my brother's account — bitter regret."

"Impossible ; for such a brother ?"

"Yes, for such a one, just because he is such a one."

"My dear Madam Harvest" — she was perceptibly disturbed.

"I cannot help myself: I carry my heart on my tongue. You see, my friend, nothing in the world troubles me so much as not to have my kind feelings returned. If my frankness is rewarded by reserve, my hearty confidence with cold distrust — say what you will, this is vexatious, it is horrible."

"Would I defend it? But your worthy brother ——"

"Oh, I see ; you will not let me blame him. You are too heartily his friend."

"If I were not" — she had tears in her eyes.

"You are, however, my friend, and you will be just. I will bring forward the worst, which, however, is still a matter of uncertainty. My brother has some affair at heart, which does not do him honor. Does he not know his sister, his loving sister, who would do any thing in the world, rather than betray him? Does he not know his honest brother-in-law, who takes such a strong interest in his affairs, and who would be so willing to assist him by word or deed? Why does he remain silent when a thousand questions are asked him, and he is a thousand times besought to reveal his trouble?"

"Shall I ask what it is?"

"There is very little to hear. I alas only know, can only guess in general, that he is in love!"

"He — in love?" asked the widow, not without hesitation, for at that moment she saw before her the worthy, noble friend, who in taking leave of her, kissed her hand with so much feeling, that her heart told her, he was in love.

"He has all the marks of it," resumed Madam Harvest; "incessant sighing, a blank gazing upon one spot, a feeble, melancholy tone, a moist, languishing eye. But who can he be in love with? who? No prayers, no question can bring this out. It cannot be any person who is no longer disengaged, whose heart is already disposed of?"

"Oh, certainly not, certainly not," said the widow, who, by this rash speech, which hastily escaped her, was thrown into an embarrassment, a confusion.

"You know, then, perhaps?"

"Nothing, my dear friend, I know nothing of it; I only judge from his manner of thinking, his character, that if he paid such attention —"

"Well, I will not guess any longer; for that he loves a person, who is in any way improper for him, who is unworthy of him — no, that I cannot, will not guess."

"I pray you do not entertain such a thought." She could scarcely restrain her tears, for possible as it might be that she was that person, she found it difficult to put herself in that place.

"Let me go on frankly — I have some reason for applying to you. During the whole time my brother was arranging your books I scarcely saw him. He was here every evening with you. Naturally he would have confided in you —"

The widow trembled at what might be coming. She turned first red, then pale.

"Perhaps, in so many conversations, — in so many unrestrained, confidential conversations, — when you were, for the most part, alone with him —"

"Truly; but then —"

"Could not something have betrayed? some little word might have fallen, that might give us some light?"

"I do not know, I must reflect," said the widow; "yet in general —"

"In general what, my dear friend?"

"He was full of work; he was engaged in figuring. He talked very little."

"Reckoning, to be sure, takes up one's attention; but still, the beginning of his passion was exactly at the time when he was examining your accounts, for before that he was gay and cheerful. He certainly must have been thinking of something beside numbers and fractions. Cannot you remember whether you had company? whether any ladies were here?"

"I had — no company." She could think of nothing more. She was restless, and pulled her dress.

"Well, I shall learn nothing here ; but must go away as wise as I came. It must be my comfort, that time brings every thing to light, and that this love will not be a mystery for ever. Meantime, do not imagine that curiosity alone led me to you. It was a tender anxiety for my brother, whom I am foolish enough to love still, little as he deserves it."

"You are cruel, my dear Madam."

"I see him growing pale, thinner and thinner, see him losing all his cheerfulness, all his gayety ; see him fading away, even in health. How can I remain easy ?"

"Fading away ? My dear Madam Harvest ——"

"Just so ; my husband said to me this morning, — this is not well this will not do, if it lasts. Your brother must explain what is the matter."

The widow here felt a sadness which she could with difficulty conceal. He had not explained himself ; and did he avoid this ? did he prefer to nourish in himself this secret sorrow, rather than confess his love ? What should she think of this ? Did he himself disapprove of this passion ? Was her want of wealth, were her children, an objection ?

"I am interested in the affair ; I will not deny it. I had a sister once, whom I lost by the small-pox. Ah ! such a creature, my dear friend. Such softness, such pleasant manners, such goodness of heart. Oh, if I had such a sister now. How I have always hoped that my brother would bring us such a one ! How I should love her on her own account, and for my brother's sake also ——"

"And I," said the widow, "had." And now she drew out her handkerchief, and applied it to her eyes, apparently not without cause.

Madam Lilius was no hypocrite, except that she possessed a degree of dissimulation which is inseparable from the female character, and her tears fell without any restraint, from the fulness of her heart ; but, perhaps, any one who had seen her emotion, might have wondered that it should have been excited by the death of the little eight years' old Amelia, which took place fourteen years ago.

Madam Harvest drew out her handkerchief, but she had in reality no tears behind it. "Let us," said she, "put an end to this conversation. Why should we make each other sad ? We must remember what is gone is gone, and what lies in the grave cannot come back to us."

"It cannot, indeed, come back to us," sighed the widow.

"On the contrary, while there is life there is hope. My brother may not be so far gone as my anxiety makes me think him to be ; at dinner to-day, he seemed to have a tolerably good appetite, and that is not a bad sign" — she smiled — "at any rate, he will not go to Br—. He will, I think, remain here."

"He will remain here ?" asked the widow, and seemed to take some comfort from that expectation.

"I think so. And then my husband, who understands such diseases, will have him under his eye, and will endeavor to restore his strength. Probably he will come to some conclusion, and explain himself. Do you not think so?" and she smiled again.

The widow was thrown into some confusion by this sudden change in the tone and countenance of Madam Harvest. She was almost inclined to think that it was not the brother, but herself, whose love that lady was endeavoring to fathom, and that Mr. Stark had confessed his love to his sister. This idea was strengthened, when Madam Harvest continued, in a cheerful tone, "I shall then, perhaps, have a sister, just such a tender, gentle, amiable sister as I have lost. It seems as if I saw the lovely creature now before me." She had taken the hand of the widow, and gave it a gentle pressure at these last words, while the latter, not knowing what she was doing, and when it was too late, was alarmed at what she had done, not only returned this pressure, but her still moist face was lighted by a soft smile. She was a little angry at the artifice of her friend, and yet she was not. She was displeased at her gay countenance, and yet she was not altogether so; she did not exactly know what she thought herself. But she would willingly have been alone to think over the whole conversation, and to settle with herself, how much or how little of her heart she had betrayed.

Madam Harvest, as though she had read this wish in her eyes, rose to take leave. "It is late," said she; "I must go. Farewell, my good, gentle, tender, dear — on my word, I was within a hair's breadth of saying, sister! You see how full my head is of my brother's affairs of the heart. What do you think? Will every thing be yet right between him and me?"

"Ah, my dear friend, you were never angry with him for a single moment."

"No, truly, no;" and now a warmer, longer embrace followed, than had ever before taken place between them.

In the passage, Madam Harvest, as she was going away, saw the oldest son of Madam Lillias, took him up, and kissed him. The child was lying down, in some little trouble. She formed the sudden idea of desiring his mother to let him come to see her the next day. She wanted to show him to her good old father, who was the greatest friend of children; who would, she knew, be greatly pleased with the pretty face and pleasant manners of the child. "He can," said she, "play with my children, and dine with us." The mother consented, and the boy hopped and danced with joy.

When she returned home, Madam Harvest made her husband, and still more, her brother, happy at the intelligence she brought with her. Particularly was the latter delighted with the assistance which his father had given to the widow; he felt a joy and gratitude at it greater than he had ever felt at even more important kindnesses, which had been shown to himself. But he was discontented that his sister kept back so much of what had transpired in the course of her conversation with the widow; for with all his questioning he could only find out that he

was loved, he was certainly loved, and she, his sister, would answer with her life that he should have a willing yes, as soon as he should ask for it ; all that the widow said, and by what feature she betrayed her heart, this was kept from him, lover and brother though he were, by the veil of female delicacy. It was only to the eye of her husband, that this veil was afterward partly raised, and that with a charge of profound secrecy.

CHAPTER XXXII.

THE church service was ended, and the streets were filled with well-dressed people, when one of the little Harveys, from his post at the window, where he had been keeping watch, ran hastily to the door, and now the whole noisy swarm descended to the entry, to welcome with shouts of joy their grandfather, accompanied by their mother. The old gentleman received the little ones with his usual sharp reprimand for their indecent noise, but with a kindness which dispelled, in the same moment, the impression of the reproof. He now began to empty his pockets of sweetmeats, and his purse for their savings boxes, when he saw in the background a pretty boy standing alone, and apparently somewhat sad, and asked his daughter who it was.

"Ah, a dear sweet little fellow," said the daughter, "the oldest son of Madam Lilius, and schoolmate and playfellow of my William."

"Lilius," said the old gentleman, "let me see him a little nearer."

He came, at the desire of Madam Harvest, and went, by her direction, to the old gentleman, whose hand he kissed with propriety and respect, as he had been taught by his mother.

"Really, really, a very amiable boy."

Mr. Stark now gave him a share of his treasures with the others, and put him up on a table which stood in the entry, that he might, as he said, see whether he knew him. "Yes, yes," said he, "dear sweet little one, we are now old acquaintances. See here, my dear daughter, see here, how like that is, the forehead, the chin —"

"Exactly like old Mr. Lilius, without dispute."

"The sport of nature," cried Mr. Stark.

"The order of nature," replied the daughter, and put upon the same table one of her own children, who had actually in the form of his face a striking resemblance to his grandfather. The old man caressed both, and was greatly pleased.

"But," said he, "when good old Lilius smiled, he had a peculiar expression in his upper lip. I wonder if the little one has it. Dear little fellow, be so good as to laugh, do you hear ?"

The little boy remained serious, for he had no occasion for laughter, and was not yet refined enough to find occasion in the command.

"I will bring you to it," said the old gentleman, and drew out of his purse a new double ducat, bright as a looking-glass, which he promised to give him if he would do him the favor to laugh. The boy here did not discredit the mercantile race from which he sprung, but smiled

upon the pretty ducat with visible desire to bring it from the strange pocket into his own. Mr. Stark drew him with much warmth to his breast, and kissed him. "See, see," said he to his daughter; "the grandfather, as if he stood before our eyes. Is it not true? There, take it, my dear little fellow, and when you get home, give the pretty ducat to your mother, and beg her to put it in your savings box for you."

At table, the old gentleman was in one of his very best humors, talked and joked with the children, and received the news of his son's recovery and the little journey he had taken for his restoration so well, that his conversation with the Doctor after dinner took place under very favorable auspices.

The Doctor began by congratulating the old gentleman in a sportive manner upon his excellent treatment of his patient's crisis, and said that he had taken the most correct view of the disease."

"Indeed?" said the old man, "have I, do you think, any talent for your art?"

"Talent for it? You are master of it."

"Is all happily over?"

"All, the whole crisis."

"The heart disease, also?"

"Perfectly, entirely, and the heart is in the most fresh, healthy state. Full of love, of gratitude, of respect for a father, who, instead of being angry, as he might have been, only acted nobly."

"But, my dear son, I have not yet quite done with my cure. You have, by many of your accounts of diseases, made me greatly to dread relapses, and I would, for the sake of security, order for my patient one other medicine, which I hope will do him good service."

"The best thing for him now is, for you to do something to strengthen him."

"Do you think so? and by what?"

"By entire forgiveness, with full, fatherly affection."

"If it were not too early for that ——"

"No, no; I have taken up the thing after my own head, and I will now carry it out. I will not leave unemployed the advantage, which, by his rebellion, the young man has put into my hands, and that I will now use as I please."

"Was he not always in your hands?"

"Not entirely. I must take other things into consideration. For instance, if as we were situated before, I had said to him, 'Son, this is my will, I insist upon it, do so and so, or I will drive you out of the house, send you to some place which does not please you, to which you have an aversion,' for between ourselves I know very well he had an aversion to Br——, tell me, what would the mother, the sister, yourself, every body have thought of me? A tyrant, a barbarian, a hard unnatural father, I should have been. To treat him so before his fit of ill humor, would have been impossible without harshness; but after this event I can and may so treat him, and I will see who blames me."

"One will, my dear father ——"

"Who?"

"A man who has the noblest of hearts, yourself."

"False, I agree with myself. I will say to my son, our partnership is over; depend upon it no longer; in my house, in my warehouse, you do not come again."

"My dear father," said the Doctor.

"That is settled. It is fixed."

The Doctor was not a little alarmed. "You will, at least, listen to me, I hope, and then I trust, I am certain you will think differently."

"Listen to you? that I will, with pleasure. Here I sit; but as for thinking differently,—you must have something very singular to say to me?"

"Not very singular, but very true."

"Indeed, I am quite curious."

"You cannot find it singular, if I maintain that a single action, to which fortunate or unfortunate circumstances lead a man, can change him entirely, can breathe into him a new soul; one dishonorable, shameful action may for ever degrade a man, one good and great one for ever ennoble him?"

"To what does this refer?" asked the old man.

"You remember what I told you of the conduct of your son at the death-bed of Liliias?"

"It was good, it was noble in him."

"Had you ever expected it in him?"

"Never."

"Certainly, and he himself did not. An unexpected, and to him an entirely new, impression created in him an irresistible feeling. But having once done such an action, will it vanish without trace like a flash of lightning? will it have left no thought behind it? will not the recollection of it have an effect? Believe me, the consciousness of worth, goodness, virtue, which your son took with him from the house of Liliias, has been for ever important to him. It has cured him of his former littleness, vanity, and selfishness, in a great measure, and is still working for his improvement, his perfection. What you have formerly with so much justice charged him with, is now altogether altered. He has left his former companions, dancing and cards are indifferent to him, and he is much less interested in dress; for several months he has had nothing new, for several months he has been no where except to concert halls, the most innocent of all places of amusement. His present desire is to work, to make himself useful, to deserve the respect and consideration of others as well as himself. Is it not undeniable, that this was the operation of that moment, when he himself saw in such a new light virtue in all her dignity and beauty?"

The old man, who listened with great attention, nodded his assent to this developement; and yet it was, if not entirely false, at least very one-sided and unreasonable. The principal figure in the heart of the son, love, was for good reasons left out.

"Even," continued the Doctor, "when he had the folly to oppose himself to you, this does not change my opinion, but rather strengthens it. Because he had become more noble and more elevated, he could no longer bear the treatment which he had before deserved; because he began to feel respect for himself, he desired to enjoy the respect of others, of his father; and thus, from the painful estrangement between you, and the unfortunate want of confidence, which made him think you opposed to all his wishes, came this hasty resolution to leave you, which your wise conduct has made him deeply sorry for. But my best father, will you punish so cruelly a fault committed for such reasons, by such a son?"

"What?" cried the old man, rising with great emotion, "what do you say, my dear Doctor, what are you thinking of?"

"You said he should never again enter your warehouse."

"That he shall not, he must not."

"Are you, then, angry for ever?"

"Angry, I? now on my soul, if all fathers are angry in this way, the young men their sons would do very well."

"But, how did I understand you?"

"I will dissolve the partnership with him, and will set myself down to rest. My house shall be his, my warehouse his. Do you understand now?"

"Yes, indeed!" said the Doctor, joyfully; "if you explain it in this way. The text was dark, the explanation clear as the sun. But as for me, what a fright I have had!"

"Do not rejoice too soon; the conditions are not yet laid down."

"Oh, those will be made by a father — a noble, generous father. I am very easy about them."

"You will think they are ordered for his best good. I now have him, as I said, in my power; and I therefore insist, that he shall be more active, shall carry on the business when it is his own with more earnestness and zeal than he did under my direction. He shall not procure a successor to the book-keeper, who is about to go away, because he can do this work with his own hands, without making the business of the writing-desk too irksome. He must give up rambling about in company and the public places; and to make his home more agreeable, he must get a wife, not a fashionable lady, no slave to dress, no blue-stockings, but a good, domestic, loving wife, whom he can love, and whom I can value and call daughter without blushing. If he comply with these conditions, well. I will give up every thing to him — stay at home and manage the rest of my affairs in quiet. If he will not comply with them, I can do nothing further to help him. I will labor on with my book-keepers, and I will send him, where the young man does not want to go, but where he threatened me he would go, to his Br——. In my house, so long as it remains mine, he never enters again."

"Is this your after-cure, my dear father?"

"It is. Will it be useful to him?"

"He will acknowledge your love and your good judgment in it. Prepare yourself to embrace the most grateful, the most deeply affected son."

"Do you think so? then prepare yourself to see a man who loses house and business, and laughs at it."

"How much do you rejoice me by this resolution?"

"But I do not like your opinion of me. What! could I have been angry, angry with my only son, of whom you tell me things which draw tears of joy into my eyes. Angry with him, about whom you long ago had my promise, that if he would do as I wished, it should be my first, my most anxious care, to make him happy? Do you think old Stark would throw such a promise to the winds? Could he break such a promise? Go, go." The old gentleman was making his own preparations for departure. "You have mistaken my heart, discredited my honor, and in revenge" — he seemed to hesitate a moment — "I will not come and see you again for eight days."

The Doctor smiled, and took the hand of the old gentleman — embraces between them were not common. The hearty pressure of his hand, which he received in return, convinced him of the great satisfaction with which his favorable representation of the change of feeling in the son, had been heard. He was more fully convinced of this by the present which he received the same evening, — a great basket full of choice old Rhenish wine, which the bearer said was to brighten the wits of the Doctor.

CAUSES OF DEATH IN ENGLAND AND WALES.

THE Appendix to the "Third Annual Report of the Registrar-General of Births, Deaths, and Marriages in England," has just been published. The following abstract of this document is abridged from the London Times. It is a document of great value, containing an immense body of facts connected with the important and almost universally interesting subject of public health. The report is drawn up with great care, under the superintendence of Mr. W. Farr, of whose talents for the task imposed upon him we spoke in terms of deserving eulogy last year, when reviewing a similar document. It appears from Mr. Farr's letter, that the deaths in 1839 were not so numerous as in 1838, but that the number of cases in which the causes were specified scarcely differed in the two years.

In 1838, the causes of 330,559 deaths were stated; in 1839, 330,497. The coincidence is said to arise from the cause of death having been more generally registered in 1839; for the total number of deaths in that year was 3,550 less than occurred in 1838. In 1838, the deaths were 342,529; the causes of 11,970 were not specified. In 1839, the deaths were 338,979; and the causes of 8,482 were not specified.

Taking the facts connected with the increase of population into consideration, it appears that the mortality in 1839 was lower than in the preceding year. The small-pox and typhus fever did not prevail so generally, and the winter was milder. The diminution of mortality in the two sexes was 2 1-2 per cent. : 2.4 per cent. among the males, and 2.6 per cent. among the females.

In all the calculations a correction is made for the increase of the population, and the 8,482 deaths in which the cause was not specified, are assumed to have happened in the same way as the 330,497 in which the causes were registered.

The number of diseases from the class of epidemic, endemic, and contagious diseases, was 65,343; and the mean rate of mortality per 1,000 by the class was 4.25; in 1838 it was 4.52. The decrease was in small-pox and typhus, 16,268 persons having died of small-pox in 1838, and 9,131 in 1839; 18,775 of typhus in 1838, and 15,666 in 1839. On the other hand, 6,514 children died of measles, and 5,802 of scarlatina, in 1838; while 10,937 died of measles, and 10,325 of scarlatina, in 1839. Hooping cough declined. Croup, thrush, diarrhoea, dysentery, cholera, influenza, and erysipelas, remained stationary; none of them assumed the epidemic form. Ague rose from 44 to 95. In 1838, 16 males and 8 females died of hydrophobia; in 1839, 11 males and 4 females perished in the same way. Out of a population of 100,000 of each sex, 432 males and 418 females died of the epidemic class of diseases; but when the comparison is instituted between the deaths alone, the proportions are reversed. In 100,000 deaths of males, 19,368, and in 100,000 deaths of females, 20,189 were from the same class of diseases.

The mortality from diseases of the nervous system was 3.2, in a population of 1,000 (500 of each sex;) in 1838 the mortality by every disease of this class, except epilepsy, insanity, and delirium tremens, was higher. From an accidental circumstance, too many deaths are ascribed to chorea in the present abstracts; the proportions were very nearly the same as in 1838. The diseases of the nervous system were 25 per cent. more fatal to males than to females, the rate of mortality among males having been 3.6, among females 2.8, in 1,000.

It appears that 90,565 persons died by diseases of the respiratory organs; the class comprises 27 per cent. of the deaths; and 59,559, or 18 per cent. of the deaths, the causes of which are specified, were by consumption. At the adult age, when consumption chiefly prevails, the numbers of men and women living are nearly equal; yet 31,453 females, and 28,106 males, died of this disease. The annual rate of mortality by consumption was, males, .003,722; females, .004,015. In 1838 it was, males, .003,783; females, .004,077; denoting a slight decrease, which was more obvious in the other diseases of the class. 659 deaths were ascribed to quinsy. This augmentation in the inflammatory affections of the throat was probably connected with the epidemic of scarlatina.

The number of cases registered as diseases of the heart, or of the organs of circulation, increased from 3,562 to 3,783.

20,767 persons are returned as having died by diseases of the digestive organs, namely, 3,990 by diseases of the liver, 29 by diseases of the spleen; 4 by diseases of the pancreas; and 16,744 by diseases of the stomach and intestines. In 1838, 420 persons died of diseases of the skin, and in 1839, 448 were destroyed by the same affection. Fevers attended by eruptions, such as small-pox, measles, scarlet fever, erysipelas, &c., were fatal in 1838 to 29,787; and in 1839 to 31,533 persons. Childbirth was fatal to 2,915 women; out of 1,000,000 females living, 368 died of this cause in 1838, and 372 in 1839. About 5 births in 1,000 prove fatal to the mother. This class of deaths does not appear to diminish in amount. Diseases of the joints, bones, and muscles, destroyed 1,098 males, and 922 females. Deaths of persons returned as dying from "inflammations," without specifying the part affected or the nature of the attack, amounted in 1838 to 5,816, and in the following year to 4,940.

The part of the report which refers to the subject of "violent deaths" is extremely important. The facts which illustrate the subjects of suicide and sudden death are of great value, and deserve the attentive consideration of the profession, and all persons interested in the study of latent diseases, and the physical and mental causes which operate in producing a disposition to commit self-destruction. Scarcely a day elapses without there being recorded in the ordinary channels of communication the particulars of a number of "sudden deaths" and "suicides." Persons in the prime of life and apparently in the enjoyment of excellent health, are unexpectedly summoned to surrender to the grim tyrant, death. Hitherto, little or no consideration has been paid to this subject. It is the same with regard to the disease of suicide; for whether the impulse to commit self-murder be the result of mental or physical causes, it is still a disease. The deaths referred to violence in 1838 were 12,055; in 1839 they amounted to 11,980. It appears that there were less suicides committed in 1839 than in the preceding year; but the proportions at different ages, in different parts of the country, and in the seasons of the year, remained unchanged. Before, however, going into the subject of suicide, we would observe, that it is truly appalling to consider the number of persons annually consigned to a premature death by violent causes. It appears that 12,000 deaths occur in this country from violence, which imply at least 125,000 severe accidents. Surely this statement clearly points out the want of a medical police in this country, to protect the public from these unnatural causes of death.

Mr. Farr gives an abstract of 5,519 cases of violent deaths, showing the ages of the persons. From the table it appears, that of that number two-thirds of the males were aged 20 and upwards, while less than half of the females were of that age. Under 20, the number of males was 1,311; the females, 853. At the age of 20 and upwards, the males were 2,650; the females, 705. Nearly half (5,315) of the violent deaths in the country happen to men above 20 years of age; 44 per cent. are 20 and under 60; so that, exclusive of suicides and the

deaths at sea, 4,367 men in the prime of life are cut off every year in England by injuries and accidents of various kinds; 86 sailors, watermen, or fishermen, died violent deaths; 21 engineers, stokers, and firemen were killed in one year in the metropolis, and that chiefly in the steam-vessels on the Thames. It is supposed that 1,000 lives are annually lost in sailing-vessels alone, by shipwreck. It will be found that 2,454 persons are drowned every year in England.

The violent deaths of men whose occupations are carried on above the level of the earth, are most generally the effect of falls. Of 3,146 cases of violent deaths, 2,371 were pronounced accidental; 388 were ascribed to human agency; and in 387 cases the verdicts did not state whether the death was the result of suicide, accident, or murder.

Violent deaths are least common in the agricultural districts, more frequent in cities and manufacturing places, and most fatal in the mining parts of the country. Abstracts have been made to exhibit an analysis of the causes of violent deaths in the Metropolis, (two years,) Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham, Norfolk, and Suffolk, and the principal mining districts of the kingdom. The following results have been deduced from the detailed tables:

Table of the Number of Violent Deaths, including Suicides, out of 100,000 Persons, by Various Causes, in the Metropolis, in Manchester, Liverpool, and Birmingham; in Norfolk, and Suffolk, and in the Mining Districts:

CAUSES OF DEATH.	Metropolis, Norfolk and Suffolk. (two years.)	Manchester, Liverpool & Birmingham.	Mining Districts.
<i>By Mechanical Injury.</i>			
Gunshot wounds,	0.7	1.0	1.0
Other wounds,	2.6	1.6	1.0
Fractures and contusions,	21.6	20.6	53.2
<i>By Chemical Injury.</i>			
Explosions, scalds, burns, lightning,	14.6	20.7	38.8
Poisons,	3.3	4.0	1.8
<i>By Suspension of Respiration, (Asphyxia.)</i>			
Drowning,	16.4	19.4	21.9
Hanging,	4.7	5	1.4
Mephitic gases,	0.2		0.9
Suffocation,	2.7	2.9	0.6
Total,	66.8	74.8	120.6

It must be borne in mind, in reasoning on these facts, that where the mortality is augmented, the increase occurs exclusively in certain occupations, while the calculations are based upon the entire population. The mortality of accidents occasioned by those occupations is, therefore, much greater than it is represented to be in the tabular proportions, which vary not only with the danger, but with the relative number of persons engaged in the dangerous trade. More violent deaths, for instance, occur in the midland mining districts, than in the north; which may be accounted for either by the greater fatality of the works in the former, or the greater density of the mining population.

	Population, 1831.	Violent deaths in one year.
Mining parts of Shropshire, Staffordshire, and Wales,	306,614	541
" " " Northumberland and Durham,	318,941	340
" " " Cornwall,	239,379	283

Whether violent deaths are on the increase is a question of some interest. The London bills of mortality, so far as they can be relied upon, furnish data for obtaining some approximation to the proportion of deaths by violence in the metropolis to the deaths by all causes, from the middle of the 17th century :

	1647 to 1700.	1701 to 1749.	1750 to 1799.	1800 to 1829.
Drowned,	3,448	3,943	5,679	3,635
Burnt or scalded,	419	384	744	1,150
Suicide,	901	1,978	1,571	1,090
Killed,	3,520	3,120	3,546	2,632
Murdered,	683	419	218	99
Poisoned,	96	115	76	109
Smothered and suffocated,	108	151	288	216
Executed,	1,043	681	935	595
Found dead,	478	1,770	510	406

The inferences which are drawn by Mr. Farr from the above table were, that in the first period, (1647 – 1700) the annual rate of mortality was about 7, in the second 5.2, in the third 5, in the fourth, 3 per ct. ; and it may also be deduced that, in the 17th century, 6.8 in 100,000, in the 18th century 5.4, in the 19th century 5, died violent deaths. Out of a given amount of population, the deaths by drowning increased in the latter half of the 18th century ; the deaths by scalds and burns were twice as great in 1800 – 1830 as in the 17th century. The tendency to suicide remained nearly stationary ; so did death by poisoning. All the deaths by personal violence rapidly decreased. In a population of 100,000, about 23 were killed, 4.6 murdered, in the 17th century ; in the 19th century, 13 were killed, and 0.5 were murdered. The chance of being murdered diminished ninefold. The executions were more frequent in the latter half than in the beginning of the 18th century ; compared with the population within the bills of mortality, they were not half so frequent in the first 30 years of the 19th century as in the latter half of the 18th century, when about 7 were executed annually to a population of 10,000. Relatively to the murders, the number of executions increased.

In the report, an interesting table is given, showing the number of violent deaths in Sweden, Prussia, and France, as given in the official returns. In Sweden the violent deaths amount to 8.2 in 10,000 annually. The mines and lakes of Sweden make the violent deaths numerous. 947 persons (792 males, and 155 females,) were drowned every year. The mortality from violent deaths is much greater in England than in any nation in Europe. In order to account for this circumstance, Mr. Farr observes, "relatively to the population of England, few countries have such an extent of coasts, rivers, and ca-

nals, or so many men employed in navigation ; so many fires, furnaces, and chemical processes in operation ; medicines and poisons distributed in so many shops, so many mines, manufactories, or buildings ; so many horses, carriages, and railways ; such a vast amount of force and power of every description at its disposal. The great number of violent deaths in England may, therefore, be accounted for on the assumption that the danger in the manufactories, mines, and conveyances, is the same as in other countries ; but that the frequency of exposure to it is greater."

The reflections entertained in the following extract cannot be too widely and generally diffused. How much of human suffering, how much anguish of mind, would be spared to us were we to exercise, in the ordinary transactions of life, a prudent caution ! Two thirds of the cases of violent or accidental deaths which annually occur are clearly the result of gross and unpardonable carelessness. In the Swedish abstract, to which we have previously alluded, it is stated, that from the year 1810 to 1830, 378 infants were suffocated (overlaid) through the gross negligence of nurses. In England a great number of infants are annually killed in the same manner. Mr. Farr says :

" The knowledge of the accidents to which people are exposed in different occupations, may put them more on their guard against danger. Men who work at a considerable elevation from the earth will learn caution from the number of deaths by falls, and will, perhaps, indulge less in intoxicating drinks, (which are the cause of so many accidents,) or in any thing which makes the step or head unsteady. In the metropolis, in two years, 142 males, and 285 females, died by burns ! This is to be ascribed to the greater combustibility of the dresses of females : their caps and gowns frequently take fire. Many children are burnt from the same cause. It deserves the consideration of manufacturers, whether cotton and linen may not be made by a chemical solution as little liable to take fire as textures of wool. It may render parents and servants more careful to state that many children, under five years of age, are suffocated by drinking boiling water out of the tea-kettle ; are burnt to death or disfigured for life, from being left alone at the fire, without a guard ; and that many children are poisoned by drinking medicines, or drugs, left within their reach. 500 or 600 persons are ascertained to die by poison every year in England ; besides the cases of poisoning which are never detected. These are not like the other violent deaths. The poisons are of very little use, except in the hands of medical men ; and may, without any disadvantage, be placed beyond the reach of the majority of persons, by whom they are employed for self-destruction, or murder. Arsenic, mixed with food, cannot be tasted, and is fatal in very small quantities ; yet it is obtained with almost as much facility as sugar, by servant girls, in the small chemists' shops. About 100 fatal cases of poisoning by arsenic are detected every year. It is generally asked for ' to kill rats ; ' but it is questionable whether arsenic kills more rats than human beings ; and, if the destruction of rats is a matter of so much impor-

tance it may be effected in other ways. The suicide, or murderer, would, it is true, often resort to other means, if poison were inaccessible; but he would not always do so; and many of the 'accidental deaths,' which now occur from taking poison by mistake, would be prevented. The taste of opium cannot easily be disguised; hence it is less used by the murderer than the suicide. Small quantities of opium are fatal to infants; and mothers, and nurses, frequently give children over-doses of laudanum, or elixir, and quack medicines, in which it is mixed up in uncertain quantities. It is admitted by those who have paid most attention to this subject, that the system of pharmacy in England, and the sale of poisons, requires revision. The sale of prussic acid, opium, nux vomica, oxalic acid, corrosive sublimate, and arsenic, to the public, may be prohibited, or be permitted only by medical prescription. The master's certificate may be required for sugar of lead, and poisonous substances employed in the arts and manufactures. The immense number of deaths by drowning, (about 2,400 annually,) arises, in part, from the neglect of the art of swimming, even by persons who are frequently on deep waters."

CHRONOLOGY.

FOREIGN.

CHINA. Our news from China is from Macao to 12th of October. The capture of Amoy, mentioned in our last number, [Mon. Chron. Vol. III. p. 40.] is confirmed. We copy part of Sir Henry Pottinger's Circular announcing the event.

"Her Majesty's Plenipotentiary, &c., has the highest degree of satisfaction in announcing to her Majesty's subjects, and others who feel an interest in the question, that the city of Amoy, with its very extensive and formidable line of batteries, and fleet of gun-boats and war-junks, (the whole mounting upwards of five hundred pieces of cannon,) was taken possession of on the 26th inst., (Aug.) after a short but animated defence on the part of the Chinese, by her Majesty's naval and land forces, under the command of their Excellencies Rear Admiral Sir Wm. Parker, K. C. E., and Major-General Sir H. Gough, K. C. B.

"This brilliant achievement has been happily accomplished with a very trifling loss; and, in addition to the works, all of which have been dismantled and destroyed, and the guns spiked and broken, immense magazines full of munitions of war have been either removed, or rendered useless.

"Arrangements are now in progress for leaving a detachment of troops on the small island of Koolangau, (which is separated from the town of Amoy by a channel of deep water,) and some of her Majesty's ships will remain at this port, whilst the great body advances to the northward, so that British ships or other ships, that may touch here during the ensuing season, will find ample protection, and be secure from any risk of molestation."

The following extract from a letter written by one of the English officers, gives some interesting particulars of the manner in which the capture was effected:

"We got to Amoy on Wednesday eve-

ning about sunset; ran in past the islands that were fortified outside, and anchored out of gun-shot of the batteries. The Chinese have not been idle; from the town to the beach, running along it for one mile, is a low stone fort with a hundred guns; the stone is all covered, except the embrasures, with mud, which gave the Alligator the idea that it was only mud.

"Beyond this there is a range of forts extending about two miles further, with batteries, some of 20 and 30 guns. The island of Koolangsu, opposite the town, is fortified with different batteries of heavy guns, about 80; opposite, on the north-west side of the bay, is defended with a long range of forts, extending about two miles; these, by-the-by, were out of range from the ships, but not when the *Blonde*, *Druid*, and *Modeste*, passed them to engage the island of Koolangsu.

"The Chinese shot from this fort passed over our ships, but ours did not reach the shore. As the light squadron advanced, the *Wellesley* and *Blenheim* ran along the whole line of forts about 400 yards from the shore, and 5 or 600 from the batteries; these did not fire, although the Chinese gave it to them pretty briskly, cutting away a good deal of their rigging, but doing no other material harm.

"The two line-of-battle ships then anchored by the stern, commenced firing, and soon knocked over the few batteries made of stucco; but as to the stone ones we made but little impression, from their immense thickness, except now and then turning over some guns, and opening one or two small breaches, although the firing, every one agrees, was admirable.

"You will hardly believe that the Chinese stood to their guns to the last, and only started when the soldiers entered the fort at the outside angle, and the marines at the other. One mandarin, whom I had watched all the time, walked quietly down to the beach and drowned himself; another cut his throat as he saw our men in possession of the batteries.

"The Chinese, men, women, and children, ran helter skelter over the hills, leaving every thing behind."

COMMERCE OF CUBA. The commercial statistics of the island of Cuba for the year 1841, show a considerable increase of trade over that of previous years, and that the island is rapidly approaching to considerable commercial importance. The total amount of imports during the year is \$34,476,617, in the following ratio:

Liquors, provisions, spices, products, bread stuffs, oils, fish, &c., \$9,776,423; manufactured cotton, woollen, linen, leather, and silks, \$7,740,074; lumber, \$1,331,015; precious metals, \$1,691,856; sundry freight, \$4,160,815. This shows an increase of nearly three-quarters of a million over the imports of the previous year. The exports of the island during the same period amount to \$47,242,484, and shows an increase of over a million of dollars over the previous year. Of these exports, \$21,300,701 were the products of the island: sugar, coffee, molasses, rum, wax, tobacco, cigars, copper, &c., and \$25,941,783 in foreign products. The principal part of this trade was carried on by Spanish and American vessels; the latter carrying \$5,654,125 worth of the importations, and about the same amount of the exportations, which is nearly double the trade done through English vessels. About two-thirds of the entries were made at the port of Havana, the principal part of the remainder at the ports of Cuba, Matanzas, and Trinidad. The trade of this island is free, and its currency gold and silver, so that there is but little fluctuation in the markets. Its statistics of trade show a gradual and steady increase every year, which, from its policy and currency, is protected from revolutions, which thwart the commercial prosperity of other places.

YUCATAN. We learn from authentic verbal information, that the province of Yucatan has relapsed into a state of dependence upon the Mexican Government. We learn further, that when the Yucatanese Congress decided upon acknowledging the supremacy of Mexico, the event was celebrated at Merida, and the other towns in the province, by the firing of cannon, illuminations, and other manifestations of rejoicing. The precise terms upon which the reannexation was effected, have not transpired; but they have reference to certain privileges of local legislation, which Santa Anna has conceded to the province of Yucatan.

BRITISH WEST INDIA STEAMERS. Four of the West India Steam Packets have left England on their passage for America, viz., the *Forth*, sailed at 1 o'clock P. M. of December 16, for Havana, calling at Nassau, to proceed to New Orleans, Tampico, and Vera Cruz, and thence to return to Havana; 2d, the *Solway*, which sailed on the afternoon of the 15th for Barbadoes, and to proceed thence by way of Martinique, and Guadeloupe, St. Thomas,

Hayti, and Jamaica, to Belize, touching various other ports, and to return to Havana; 3d, the *Tay*, on the same day for Barbadoes, Trinidad, Porto Cabello, Carthagena, and thence to Jamaica; and the 4th, the *Clyde* to touch at Madeira, Surinam, Demerara, Barbadoes, and Grenada. The *Solway* arrived at Barbadoes January 6, in nineteen days from Southampton, and the *Forth* at Havana on the 12th, in twenty-six days. The *Forth* proceeded to the Balize, where she arrived and delivered her mail January 19, and returned to Havana. Feb. 2, she sailed from Havana, touched at the Balize Feb. 4, and left early the next morning for Tampico and Vera Cruz. The *Solway* left Havana February 2 for Vera Cruz; left that place on her return on the 7th, arrived off the Balize on the 11th, lay there in a dense fog till the evening of the 12th, and not meeting with the *Eliza*, which had been despatched with passengers and the mail on the 9th, proceeded to Havana. The *Tay* arrived at Havana February 1, from Falmouth, by way of Barbadoes, and other West India islands.

DOMESTIC.

COLUMBIA RIVER, OREGON TERRITORY, July 11, 1841. The U. S. ship *Percock*, of the Exploring Expedition, was lost about noon on the 11th of July, on the north bar of Columbia River. By day-light the next morning, the water had risen to the berth-deck. They lost two boats, but succeeded in getting out the rest, and in reaching the shore, though the passage was extremely perilous. The purser secured his books and papers, and the naturalists their journals. A few hours afterwards, no trace of the ship was to be seen.

The brig *Thos. Perkins* was purchased by Capt. Wilkes to bring home the officers and crew. He rechristened her the *Oregon*. She arrived at San Francisco, Upper California, a rendezvous for the squadron, on the 19th of October, and remained there through that month. The squadron will return to the United States by way of Manilla, Singapore, and the Cape of Good Hope.

BANKS OF MAINE. According to the abstract of Bank Returns, laid before the Legislature of Maine by the Secretary of State, it appears that the number of Banks now in operation in that State, is 40, with an aggregate capital paid in of \$3,414,000. The amount of bills of all the banks in

circulation on the 1st of January last, was \$1,585,820; deposits not on interest, \$792,598, and deposits on interest, \$118,318. The amount of gold and silver in the banks was \$183,861; balances due from other banks, \$551,395; bills of other banks in the State, \$108,978, and of banks out of the State, \$36,051. Real Estate, \$216,968. Notes discounted, and other debts to the banks, \$4,987,519. The amount of the last semi-annual dividends was \$102,180.

WASHINGTON, Jan. 29. Hon. Nathan F. Dixon, a Senator in Congress from the State of Rhode Island, died, after a severe illness of several days. Mr. Dixon was born in Plainfield, Conn., in December, 1774. He was graduated at Rhode Island College in 1799, and in 1802 settled in that State, for the practice of the law. In 1813, he was elected a member of the General Assembly of that State, and was reelected by the same constituency at thirty-four successive elections. In 1838, he was elected to the United States Senate, his term beginning on the 4th of March 1839.

PROVIDENCE, R. I., Feb. 7. The legislature chose Hon. W. Sprague to be Senator in Congress in place of Mr. Dixon, deceased.

BOSTON, Feb. 8. A public dinner was given by a number of the young men of this city to Mr. Charles Dickens, the celebrated Englishman, who arrived in this country by the January steam packet. The enthusiasm excited by Mr. Dickens's arrival has never been equalled by the feeling aroused by any other person, whose distinction rested only on literary claims. His writings, however, have so perfectly and constantly addressed themselves to all classes, they have evinced such a true and beautiful philosophy in their exhibitions of human nature, they have done so much to raise the character of the lowest classes of society, and of mankind, that he is looked upon with the enthusiasm which a benefactor of his race ought to excite, rather than with the cold feeling of curiosity which would greet one who was only a successful novelist.

Mr. Dickens left Boston for Hartford, New York, and the South, on the 12th.

PROVIDENCE, R. I., Feb. 14. The "Constitutional Convention," [Monthly Chron. Vol. III. p. 46.] met again. Mr. Dorr offered a resolution, that as a constitution had been adopted by a majority of the citizens, framed by another convention since the adjournment, this conven-

tion should proceed no further. On the 15th, this resolution was rejected, after debate, yeas 11, nays 51.

The "Constitutional Convention," after a week's session, adjourned sine die, recommending to the people an amended constitution, which is to be submitted to them on the 21st, 22d, and 23d of March. The following is a summary of its most important provisions:

The right of voting for all general officers, Senators, and Representatives, is extended to all white male citizens of the United States, who have resided in the State two years, and in the town where they offer to vote six months; and upon one year's residence to those possessing the present freehold qualification. No person can vote on any question of taxation, unless he be taxed for at least \$150, or unless he possesses the freehold qualification. Foreigners may vote who have resided here three years after naturalization, and possess the freehold qualification. The usual exceptions are made of paupers, lunatics, &c., and persons in the service of the United States, residing in military stations, and on land of the United States. The General Assembly shall provide for a registration of voters, and may admit to the right of suffrage, upon such conditions as they may deem proper, natives of the United States, who have resided there two years, not qualified by the constitution.

The General Assembly will hold its sessions at the same time and places as at present. They cannot incur State debts without the consent of the people, to an amount exceeding \$50,000. Whenever they impose a direct tax, one-sixth shall be assessed on the polls of the qualified electors.

The House will consist of seventy-seven members. Providence has eight; Newport, Smithfield, and Warwick, each four; North Providence, Cumberland, and Scituate, three each; and all the rest two.

The Senate will consist of nineteen members, elected in sixteen Senatorial districts.

Both Senators and Representatives will be elected on the third Wednesday in May, and hold their seats for one year.

The Lieutenant Governor shall, *ex officio*, be a member of the Senate, and the Governor its presiding officer. In certain cases, the Senate chooses its presiding officer.

The Governor has the additional power

of granting reprieves till the end of the succeeding session of the General Assembly, and to fill vacancies in office until they are filled by election.

The General Election is held on the third Wednesday in April, when all the general officers are elected. Voting may be by open or secret ballot, as the General Assembly shall provide. Provision is made for new elections, if the first should fail, and in the second election of Senators, a plurality elects.

All qualified electors are eligible to office. Persons holding offices under the United States, or any other government, cannot be members of the General Assembly, until they may have resigned their seats.

The Supreme Court exists as at present established. They are to hold their seats till a joint-resolution of both Houses, voted for by a majority of all the members elected to each, declares their places vacant. Such a resolution can be entertained only at the session in May. Justices of the Peace are to be elected by the People.

Provision is made for the support of Public Schools, and the money appropriated for that purpose is not to be diverted to any other use, but is to remain a permanent fund.

Amendments are to be proposed by the legislature, and sent out to the people. If a majority of the next legislature approve of any amendment, it is to be sent out to the people at the next annual election, and if then voted for by three-fifths of the voters at that election, it becomes a part of the constitution.

The constitution is to go into effect on the first Tuesday in May, 1842. The annual election under it is to be held on the third Wednesday in April.

Provision is made for existence of the present Government, the validity of all contracts and obligations, and the continuance of the Courts in all judicial proceedings.

The Declaration of Rights and Principles is very full, and embraces all the sound maxims which lie at the foundation of a republican government, and which secure the freedom of the people.

On the 16th, the friends of the "Suffrage Constitution" met and nominated their candidates for State officers. Mr. Thomas F. Carpenter was nominated for Governor; he declined, as did Mr. Burgess; and Mr. Wager Weeden was then nominated.

UNITED STATES CONGRESS

THE PATENT OFFICE. The Annual Report of Henry L. Ellsworth, Commissioner of Patents, has been laid before the House of Representatives. It exhibits the results of its operations for the past year, of which the following is a summary:

Number of Patents issued,	496
“ “ “ expired,	327
Applications for Patents,	347
Excess over last,	82
Number of Patents issued previous to January, 1842,	12,477
Receipts for 1841,	\$31,320
Ordinary expenses,	\$23,065
For the restoration of models, etc.	\$20,507

The report suggests the necessity of a remedy against the frauds practiced by selling patents where none have been obtained, the propriety of patenting designs for articles of manufacture, the expediency of giving authority to Consuls to administer the oath for applicants for patents, of increasing the salaries of clerks in the office, of establishing a night and day watch, and of appropriating the whole building to the legitimate purposes of the establishment.

To our latest dates, the 26th of February, Congress has done little.

Mr. Clay's resolutions for amendments of the constitution, [Mon. Chron. Vol. III. p. 47,] were further debated on the 9th of February; and several days later in the month no action was taken on them however, none indeed was anticipated.

On the 8th of February, resolutions passed the Senate introduced by Mr. Clay, that the Committee on Public Lands inquire into the expediency of providing, that in case any State refused to receive its share of the proceeds of the public lands, that share should be redivided among the other States. This resolution passed by a vote of 25 to 18. It was rendered necessary by the refusal of S. Carolina and one or two other States to receive any money, if any ever be divided under the distribution act.

On the 15th of February, Mr. Clay presented a series of resolutions in the Senate, in the hope, he said, that some of them might be made the bases of laws. They proposed an increase in the rates of the compromise tariff, so as to raise annually \$26,000,000, and to provide by a more economical administration of the government, that the expenses shall not exceed \$22,000,000, the residue being devoted to the

payment of the debt, and the establishment of a reserved fund of \$20,000,000, to provide against deficits in the Treasury. These resolutions were not discussed at the time, but were assigned to the 24th. No action has been taken on them, however.

The bill repealing the Bankrupt law having been lost, [Mon. Chron. Vol. III. p. 48,] a bill postponing its operation came up and was debated in the Senate for some days. It was finally rejected on the 15th by a vote of 18 to 23.

The proposal to censure Mr. Adams for presenting a petition for the dissolution of the Union, agitated the House of Representatives till the 7th of February, to the exclusion of all national business. On the 28th of January Mr. Adams first took the floor in his own defence, and, with several interruptions, he continued his speech till the date named above. The question was one of privilege, and consequently took precedence of all others. It gave Mr. Adams an opportunity of entering at large into the general questions of slavery, and the right of petition. He read documents of every kind, and of every date for several years past, to prove the existence of a southern combination, constantly plotting against the interests and welfare of the Northern States; and did not fail, in the progress of his remarks, to exert his eloquence against every person, who in this connection, or on these subjects, had crossed his path, as a personal and almost a national enemy.

Mr. Adams had not finished his speech on the 7th. He then gave way, however, for a motion to lay the resolution of censure on the table. This course was adopted, 106-93. The petition was then rejected, 40-106.

This charge and defence excited general interest in all parts of the country; the circumstances admitting of a full discussion of questions on which usually under the rules nothing can be said on the floor of Congress.

The appropriation bills occupied the House through a great part of the remainder of the month. No debate took place in either branch on the schemes for the management of finance; but two Exchequer bills were presented to Congress, one in the Senate and one in the House.

On the 17th of February, Mr. Cushing, from the Committee on Finance, reported a bill for a National Exchequer. It differs materially in some points from that proposed by the Administration, [Mon. Chr.

Vol. II. p. 566.] as will be seen by the following abstract of it :

It proposes that the Board of Exchequer shall consist of the Secretary of the Treasury, the Treasurer of the United States, and one Commissioner, to be appointed by the President, with the consent of the Senate, for four years, with a salary of \$3,000 per annum.

The Exchequer Board to have power to appoint agencies, not exceeding ten in all, viz. at Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Charleston, and New Orleans, and any other five places where the public service may require it. The Board to have a principal clerk, and a register ; and each agency a superintendent and register, to be appointed by the President, with the consent of the Senate, for four years ; and each superintendent and register to have a clerk, if the business of the agency require it. The Exchequer and its officers to be the general agents of the Government, for the receiving, safe-keeping, and disbursement of the public moneys, and for transferring and transmitting them under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, and for paying all warrants, drafts, and orders of the Treasurer of the United States, and disbursing officers and agents having power to make such drafts, and shall perform all the duties of pension agents.

The Exchequer and its agencies to be authorized to receive deposits of gold and silver from individuals, and to issue certificates therefor, but never to an amount exceeding \$10,000,000, the amount receivable to be apportioned among the agencies, according to the extent of their business respectively. They are also authorized and directed to issue certificates to public creditors, in all cases where they may prefer the same [to money] for the amount of debts due to them from the United States, but never to an amount exceeding \$10,000,000, nor exceeding the amount of gold and silver on hand at the agency so certifying. The officers of the several mints are authorized to deliver similar certificates of deposit for sums of bullion or foreign coins delivered for coinage. All such certificates are to be redeemable in specie on demand at the office or mint from which issued, and receivable every where in payment of public dues. These certificates are to be prepared and signed by the Treasurer of the United States, and countersigned by the Commissioner of the Exchequer, to be in denominations from five to one hundred dollars, to be delivered

without premium, of such denominations as the public creditor or the depositor of specie may require, and a statement of the amount outstanding at every quarter is to be published.

The Board and its agencies to be authorized to draw drafts on one another, and sell them at a premium equal to the fair cost of remitting specie, not exceeding two per cent., payment to be always made in cash. The Exchequer and its agencies, when required by the Secretary of the Treasury, to be authorized to purchase private bills of exchange, for the purpose of transmitting the public funds for the payment of public creditors, or for public use, but for no other purpose. No bill to be purchased, nor draft sold by any agency, but by the consent of two of its members. All payments by the Exchequer and its agencies to be made in gold or silver, or with the consent of the creditor, in Treasury Notes, or certificates of deposit. All debts due to the United States, to be paid as aforesaid, or in the notes of banks immediately convertible into specie, at the place where received, and all accounts with banks must be settled, and balances, including all notes, paid every week or oftener.

Private deposits are not to be received nor drafts sold in any state where laws may be passed to prohibit it. The Exchequer Board is to make regulations for the form of business by the agencies, and the duties are to be so arranged, and accounts so kept, that the superintendents and registers shall be checks upon each other. The accounts of transactions regarding the public moneys, and those regarding dealings in exchange and private deposits, to be kept in separate and distinct sets of books. The profits on the drawing of exchange are to be applied to the payment of expenses, and the surplus [if any] to be placed semi-annually to the credit of the Treasurer of the United States.

Suits on bills of exchange, if necessary, to be brought in the name of the United States, in the Circuit Courts, or State Courts. Depositories to be provided in the custom-houses, or other public buildings, if there be suitable apartments, if not, elsewhere. The gross amounts of the public moneys, wherever kept, is to be passed to the credit of the Treasurer of the United States, without deduction of the costs of collection, and such costs to be paid, under appropriations by law, as in other cases of appropriation.

Various penalties are provided for frauds, or misappropriations of the money, or counterfeiting, or falsely issuing the securities of the Exchequer.

On the 21st of Feb., Mr. Tallmadge, from the select committee in the Senate, reported another plan, differing in some of its details.

It proposes to establish in the Treasury Department at the seat of government, a board, to be called the Exchequer of the United States, and to be composed of three Commissioners, to be specially appointed by the President and Senate, and removable only by the President and Senate, for specific causes. The commissioners to have ——— salary, to choose one of the members of their board to be President for two years, and a new election to take place every two years. All inferior officers judged by the board necessary for transacting the business, to be appointed by the Secretary of the Treasury, they to give bonds, and their compensation to be determined by the board until fixed by law.

The board to establish agencies in any of the cities and towns, not exceeding two in any State or Territory. The officers and agents of the agencies, deemed necessary by the board, to be appointed by the Secretary of the Treasury. Their compensation to be fixed by the board until determined by law; and regulations for their government to be established by the board, and accounts to be kept, so that one officer shall be a check upon the others.

The Exchequer, its officers and agencies, to be the agents of the government for the various purposes specified in the other schemes, and particularly for receiving and paying money for the government. All payments to be made "in gold and silver coin or in specie notes," to be issued in the form prescribed, such notes never to exceed the actual amount held for their redemption.

The Exchequer and its agencies to be authorized to receive on private deposit, from individuals, gold or silver coin or bullion, and to issue for the same, specie notes, in the form to be prescribed by the board, which shall be redeemed on presentation at the agency where issued. These deposits not to exceed \$15,000,000, distributed among all the agencies, in proportions to be established by the board. No higher premium for the deposit to be demanded, than shall be sufficient to in-

demnify against the hazard of loss, and never more than half of one per cent. The specie notes to be redeemable only at the place where issued, unless the board shall see cause to order otherwise.

Notes to be prepared by the Secretary of the Treasury, of denominations from five to one hundred dollars, to be signed by the Treasurer of the United States, countersigned by the President of the board, and endorsed by the principal officer of the agency where issued. The notes issued by the board to be endorsed by one of the commissioners, and made payable at the board. The notes, when redeemed, may be reissued.

The board and its agencies may, on the deposit of money in specie, draw bills of exchange for the amount so deposited, payable "at said Exchequer, or any agency where funds are provided on which to draw," and may also accept bills of exchange, to the amount of such actual deposits in specie; such bills and acceptances to be signed and countersigned as the board shall prescribe. On such bills of exchange, and acceptances, a reasonable premium of exchange may be received, not exceeding the fair cost of remitting specie, nor exceeding two per cent. [Nothing is said of any sale below par.]

The board, and its agencies, may take charge of bills of exchange for collection, drawn on any place where agencies are established, but in no case make any payment or advance thereon, until advice of payment shall be received. On their paying over the proceeds, such reasonable charges and commission may be deducted, as may have been agreed upon, not exceeding — per cent.

The Board must, within three months from its organization, establish by-laws for the regulation of its concerns, and the government of its agencies, copies of which must be laid before Congress.

The Secretary of the Treasury is authorized to furnish, on application of the board, a suitable amount of specie notes, for the use of the board and its agencies, to be issued either in payment to public creditors, or to individuals on the deposit of specie, the amount to be issued never to exceed the amount of specie on hand for their redemption. Payments to the Exchequer or its agencies, for dues to the United States or its officers, may be received in gold or silver, specie notes issued under this act, or in notes of banks which shall be immediate-

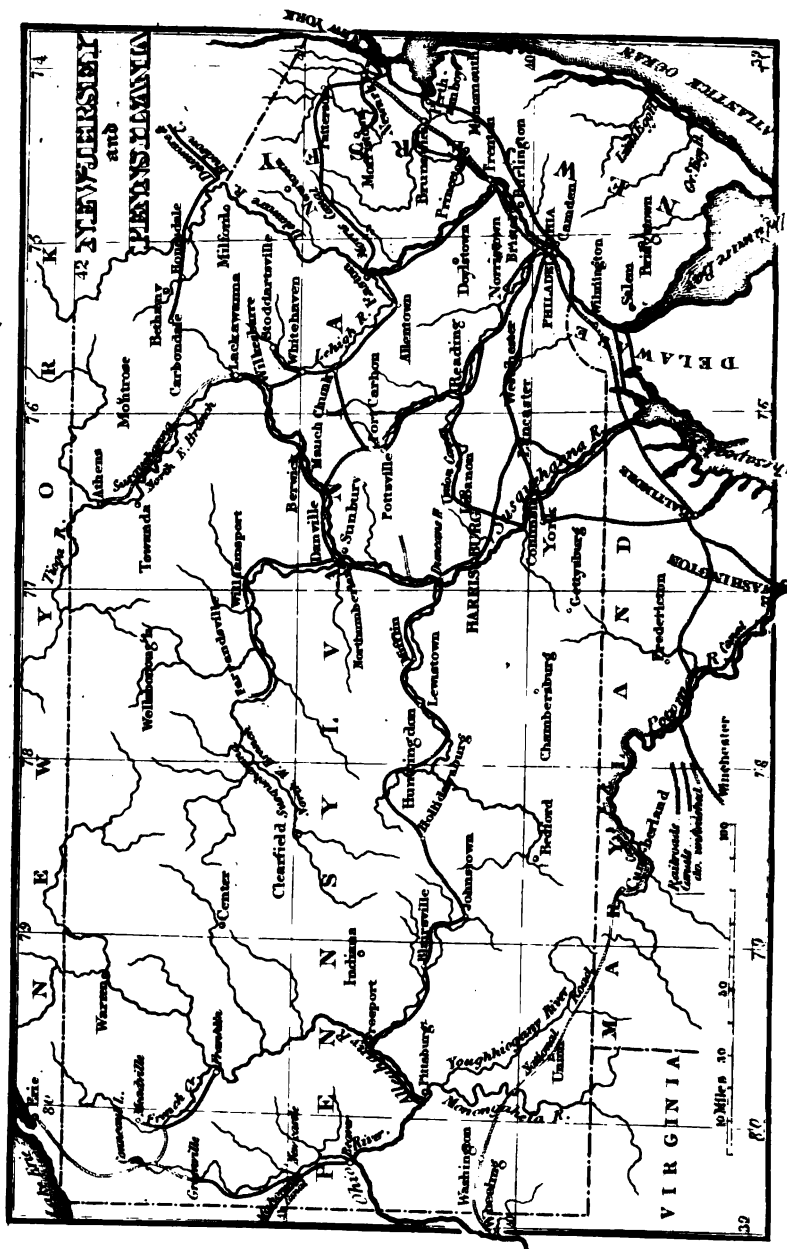
ly convertible into specie at the place where received. Settlements with banks must be made weekly or oftener, and balances paid, and no credits suffered to stand. Issues of notes must always be so limited, at the board and the agencies, that there shall always be on hand at each, gold and silver to the whole amount of such issues.

The same provision is made as in Mr. Cushing's bill, for keeping double sets of books, for the distinct entry of the public and private business; and also for paying over the profits, and for providing apartments or offices for the several agencies in the public buildings or elsewhere.

The board is authorized to appoint as agent any specie paying bank in any State, provided it shall not think it expedient to establish a special agency in such place. But in such case, such bank shall not be authorized to receive deposits, or to accept or sell bills or drafts on account of the Exchequer.

Full accounts of the proceedings of the board and agencies are to be furnished to the Secretary of the Treasury, as often as he may prescribe, and abstracts must be annually laid before Congress. Full accounts of the transactions of the board to be furnished to Congress when required, and quarterly statements of the amount of specie notes outstanding, to be published. Converting the funds by any officer or agent to his own use, or fraudulently issuing any specie note, draft, or bill of exchange, to be punished as felony.

The Secretary of the Treasury, or his agent, duly authorized, to have power to examine any of the officers or clerks of the Exchequer or its agencies, on oath or affirmation, touching all matters relating to the Exchequer or its agencies; and the Exchequer and agencies to be open at all times to examination by any committee appointed by Congress or either House thereof.



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ARTICLE IV.

PENNSYLVANIA IMPROVEMENTS.

THE vast agricultural and mineral resources of the State of Pennsylvania present powerful inducements to the improvement of its means of transportation. Its rich products, which, with the aid of these improvements, are susceptible of being made the source of immense wealth, would have been without them comparatively valueless. The enterprising people of the State have been so deeply sensible of the advantages to be derived from these improvements, that they have engaged in them with a little too much precipitation. The work of improvement was entered upon with more zeal than discretion. Too extensive a system of works was undertaken at once, — a system so vast, that it must necessarily remain for a long time incomplete, and during that period in a great measure unproductive. This error was rendered the more conspicuous by the want of judgment in the mode of carrying on the work, and by the discovery elsewhere of an entirely new system of improvement, better adapted to the attainment of the objects proposed, in some parts of the State, at least, than that which was undertaken. Had only such portions of the system of works been begun, from year to year, as could be completed within the year, and rendered at once productive, a great saving would have been made of the interest which has been sacrificed on unproductive works; and it is probable, that in place of a considerable portion of the canals which have been constructed, it would have been found that railroads might be advantageously substituted. On some of the routes probably canals are best adapted

to the purposes for which they are designed ; but on others, railroads would have been less expensive in the original construction, less costly in the charge of maintenance, and more productive of income, from uniting the transport of persons with that of merchandise.

But the public works of Pennsylvania, improvident as has been the manner in which they have been undertaken and carried on, must be productive of great wealth to the State. If the system of works be too vast and costly for the present state of population, the population is rapidly adapting itself to the magnitude of the works. The State was approached originally, on three sides, by navigable rivers, but enjoyed the benefit of little internal navigation. The numerous streams, which traversed the vast and productive intervening tracts, needed the aid of works of art, to render them convenient channels of communication. With the assistance of these works, the productions of the soil, and more especially those of the mines and quarries, are rendered vastly more valuable, and capable of supporting a much greater population. The increased value of these productions will be the means of producing a much more rapid increase of population, as well as of adding to the comforts and wealth of that population. These benefits may not be at present productive of a profit to the State in the form of tolls, or a direct income ; but they must in the aggregate increase the wealth of the State, much beyond the charge of interest on the debt contracted for the construction of the works ; and the silent effects of this benefit will in the end produce such an accumulation of population, as will insure an ample income ultimately to discharge the debt.

In addition to the works of improvement which have been undertaken in Pennsylvania by the State, some valuable and costly works have been undertaken by private companies. These enterprises have suffered severely from interfering with one another. But some of them are likely to produce an ample income.

The State works already finished consist of, 1st, a line of railroads and canals, extending from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh, nearly the whole length of the State, a distance of 395 miles ; 2d, the Delaware Canal, from tidewater at Bristol, on the Delaware River, to Easton, 60 miles ; 3d, a canal from Beaver, on the Ohio River, to Greenville, in a direction towards Erie, on Lake Erie, 73 miles ; 4th, a canal from Franklin, on the Alleghany River, to Conneaut Lake, 49 miles ; 5th, a canal from Duncan's Island to Lackawana, 111 miles ; and 6th, one from Northumberland to Farrandsville, 73 miles. These lines, with some short cuts and navigable feeders, make an extent of 650 miles of canal, and 118 of railroad, already in operation. In addition to these finished lines of canal, there are three unfinished sections, on which a large expenditure has been made, and which it is therefore

deemed desirable to complete, for the purpose of enhancing the productiveness of the works already finished, as well as to prevent the waste of money thus expended, viz. : 1st, from Greenville to Erie Harbor, by which a navigable communication will be opened between the Ohio River and Lake Erie, a further distance of 64 miles ; 2d, from Lackawana, by the north branch of the Susquehanna River to the line of the State of New York, by which a boat navigation will be opened through the whole breadth of the State, an additional distance of 90 miles ; and 3d, a short canal from Millersburg, on the mouth of the Wisconsin Creek, to the Lykens and Bear Valley coal mines, a distance of 12 miles. These works, when added to the works now completed, will make a length of canals belonging to the State of Pennsylvania of, 816 miles, and of canals and railroads of 934 miles.

A simple glance at the accompanying map, which is designed to exhibit a general outline of this system of improvement, will suffice to show that it stretches over a vast extent of territory, and must be of immense benefit, in affording the means of bringing to a market the products of the country, and of furnishing to the population of the interior the supplies which they require from the seaboard. Yet, on a more careful inspection, it will be perceived that for the object of securing the greatest amount of direct income, if not on the score of general utility, the scheme is injudiciously devised. It is deficient in two important particulars : 1st, in not providing the best line of communication for the rapid and cheap transport of passengers as well as of valuable goods, between the east and the west, from Philadelphia and the Atlantic coast, to Pittsburgh and the country extending over the valleys of the Ohio River and Lake Erie. The only route provided to serve this purpose, consists of alternate lines of railroads and canals, which, in addition to the delay incident to the slow movement of canal boats, and interruptions of frequent locks and inclined planes, is subject to the disadvantages of repeated changes from one mode of conveyance to the other, besides great indirectness, and consequent increased length of the route. 2d. These State improvements do not embrace those important and productive routes, which supply for the use of the metropolis, and for exportation, the principal amount of the great staple product of the State — *coal*. It must be apparent, from a reference to the statistics of the State, that its great resource, and one which will continue to employ a great amount of labor, and afford the greatest emolument to enterprises for improving the means of transportation, are the coal mines ; and that those routes of canal and railroad, which can be made available in transporting the products of these mines, together with those of the iron mines, and in supplying the population engaged in the branches of industry con-

nected therewith, must be productive of the greatest amount of income.

The routes, therefore, which are occupied by works of incorporated companies, formed with especial reference to the accommodation of the most frequented lines of travel, and to the transportation of coal, from the quarries to the principal markets, are those which will produce the greatest amount of income, as will be seen in the statements which we shall make hereafter.

The principal line of State works, and that which has been productive of the greatest amount of revenue, is the line of railway and canal leading from Philadelphia to Pittsburg, consisting of four divisions, two of which are railroads, and two are canals. The first of these divisions is the *Columbia and Philadelphia* railroad. This work is 81.6 miles in length, and consists of a double track. It begins at the intersection of Vine and Broad-streets, in Philadelphia, and proceeding in nearly a westerly direction, at a distance of about two miles, crosses the Schuylkill on a viaduct 984 feet in length, and immediately ascends an inclined plane of 2,805 feet in length, with a perpendicular elevation of 187 feet. Trains are carried over this plane by means of a stationary steam-engine of 60-horse power, acting upon an endless rope, nine inches in circumference, to which they are attached in ascending and descending. In its course westward, it passes over two summits of an elevation of 543 and 533 feet above the level of tide water. The maximum grade is 45 feet per mile, and with the exception of a short distance there is none exceeding 35 feet. In its original construction it entered the town of Columbia by an inclined plane at its termination with a stationary engine; but this has been removed by the substitution of a new track for six miles, with no plane exceeding a grade of 35 feet per mile. Several surveys have been made with reference to the removal of the Schuylkill inclined plane, but the change has not been yet accomplished. The viaduct across the Schuylkill is 38 feet above the usual water level, and is supported on six stone piers. There are 20 other viaducts, with stone abutments, and superstructures of wood, six of which are from 400 to 1,400 feet in length, and there are 75 stone culverts, of 4 to 25 feet span. The track is straight for 57 miles, and the rest has various degrees of curvature, the least radius being 631 feet. The width of road in the excavations and on the embankments, is 25 feet. Various forms of rail are used on different parts of the track. The greater part of it consists of an edge rail, with chairs on stone blocks. In some parts cross-sleepers of wood are used instead of stone blocks. On two miles cross-sills of stone are used at intervals of 15 feet, with stone blocks at the intervening supports. On six miles of one track, granite rails are used, plated with iron bars; and on 16 miles wooden string pieces

with a similar iron plate. The railroad passes through the city of Lancaster, and terminates in Columbia, at the outlet lock of the Pennsylvania Canal.

The mode in which the State derives an income from this railroad, as well as from that of the Alleghany Portage, is by allowing individuals and private companies to put carriages upon it for the transport of passengers or merchandise, and to charge a fixed toll upon the carriages, as well as upon the passengers and merchandise transported, for the use of the road, and also another toll for the motive power, the locomotive engines being owned by the State, and managed by agents in their employ. The rates of toll for the use of the road vary from 6 mills to 4 cents per ton of 2,000 lbs. per mile, according to the description of goods, averaging about two cents per ton. On the United States mail, the toll is one mill per mile for every 10 pounds; on every passenger one cent per mile. In addition to these tolls upon the contents of the carriages, a toll is levied of one cent per mile on each burthen car, two cents per mile on each baggage car, and one cent per mile for each pair of wheels on every passenger car. The toll for the motive power is one cent per mile, for each car having four wheels, and half a cent for each additional pair; together with one cent a mile for each passenger, and twelve mills per ton per mile, for every description of loading other than passengers. The usual rates charged by carriers, who are the owners of the cars, are four cents per mile for passengers, or \$3 25 for the whole length of the road; and 9 14-100 cents per ton per mile for goods, or \$7 50 for the whole distance, the carriers paying the State tolls, and taking the whole charge and responsibility of the transportation. The cost of this railroad, to November 1840, was \$3,982,302.

Second. The *Central Division* of the line consists of a canal from Columbia to Hollidaysburgh, 172 miles in length. This division is in two parts, the first called the *Eastern Division*, extending from Columbia, along the eastern bank of the Susquehanna River, through Harrisburgh, the capital of the State, to Duncan's Island, where it crosses the river, and unites with the Susquehanna division, which proceeds northerly on the west bank of the river; and the second, called the *Juniata Division*, which diverges from the river at Duncan's Island, and proceeds westerly along the valley of the Juniata, frequently crossing the river, and terminates at Hollidaysburgh, where it meets the Portage Railroad. In this distance it passes through several towns, among which are Mifflin, Lewistown, and Huntingdon. In this distance, the lockage from the basin at Columbia to that at Hollidaysburgh, is 670.53 feet, in 108 locks, exclusive of two grand locks, and outlet locks at Columbia. The locks on the Eastern Division are 90 feet by 17, and on the Juniata 90 by 15.

The width of canal is 40 feet at top, and 28 at bottom, and depth 4 feet. There are on this division 18 dams, and 33 aqueducts; and there are 1,583 miles of slackwater navigation. The cost of the central division of canal was \$5,172,293. A reservoir, to contain 150 acres, estimated to cost \$100,000, has been begun 1 1-4 mile from Hollidaysburgh, on which \$53,000 have been already expended.

Third. *The Alleghany Portage Railroad* begins at the termination of the above described division of the canal, and crosses the Alleghany ridge of mountains to Johnstown. It rises from Hollidaysburgh to the summit in a distance of 10.1 miles 1396.71 feet; and thence descends, in a distance of 26.59 miles to Johnstown, 1171.58 feet. The greatest elevation is 2491 feet above the level of tide-water. The total rise and fall is 2570.29 feet, of which 2007 are overcome by inclined planes, varying from 7.25 to 10.25 feet elevation to 100 of base. There are 10 inclined planes, 5 on each side of the summit. The aggregate length of the bases of the inclined planes is 4.37 miles, and of the graded portion of the road, 32.22 miles. There are 4 extensive viaducts. That over the Connemaugh, at the Horse Shoe Bend, consists of a single arch of masonry, of 80 feet span, the top of the masonry being 70 feet above the surface of the water. The cost of the aqueduct was \$54,502. The other principal aqueducts are over the Edensburgh branch, the Mountain branch, and the Beaver Dam branch of the Juniata. At a distance of 4 miles from Johnstown is a tunnel, 901 feet long, 20 feet wide, and 19 feet high, the cost of which was \$37,498. The width of road on the embankments, and within the side drains, is 25 feet. It is constructed of edge rails, weighing 40 lbs. per yard, supported by cast-iron chairs, placed partly on stone blocks, and partly on wooden cross-sleepers. At the head of each inclined plane are two stationary engines, of about 35-horse power each. One engine only is required to be used at a time, the second being provided to guard against accidental delays. The cars in ascending and descending are attached to an endless rope, and four cars can ascend, and the same number descend at a time, each ascent and descent being made in from six to ten minutes. For security in case of accident to the rope, a safety car ascends and descends with each trip. The road was built chiefly through a dense forest, and the grubbing and clearing cost \$30,524. The cost of grading, with grubbing, was \$472,162; masonry, \$116,402; laying first track, \$430,716; second track, \$362,987; buildings, machinery, and engines at the planes, \$210,811. The whole cost of the railroad, including various other items, to November 1840, was \$1,783,176. A reservoir has been begun 10 miles above Johnstown, to cover 420 acres, on which \$80,000 have been already expended. Its estimated cost is \$188,000.

Fourth. The *Western Division* of the Pennsylvania Canal, begins at the termination of the Portage Railroad, at Johnstown, and following the course of the Connequaugh and Alleghany Rivers, passing through Blairsville, Freeport, and other towns, terminates at Pittsburgh, being 104 1-2 miles in length. It is of the same dimensions as the central division, and has 66 locks, which correspond in dimensions with those of the Juniata division. The whole amount of lockage is 470 feet. There are also 10 dams, and 21 1-4 miles of the distance consists of slack-water navigation. There are two tunnels, 16 aqueducts, 64 culverts, and 39 waste weirs. The cost of the division to November 1840 was \$2,964,882.

The next portion of the Pennsylvania system of public works, is one entirely disconnected with the foregoing, called the *Delaware Division* of the Pennsylvania Canal. It begins at Bristol, on the Delaware River, at the head of tidewater, 18 miles above Philadelphia, and extends along the right bank of the river to Easton, a distance of 59 3-4 miles. It was completed in October 1830, and cost \$1,374,774. It is 40 feet wide at the surface, and 5 feet deep. It rises 164 feet, by 23 lift locks, which are 90 feet long and 11 feet wide. There is also an outlet, and a tide lock. It unites at Easton with the works of the Lehigh Company.

The *Susquehanna Division* of the canal begins at Duncan's Island, on the west side of the Susquehanna River, where it unites with the central division, crossing the northern outlet of the Juniata, and proceeds northwardly along the right bank of the river, to the town of Northumberland, where it unites with the two other divisions, which here diverge in the direction of the two branches of the river. The length of the division is 39 miles, in which distance it has an ascent of 86.5 feet, which is overcome by 12 locks. The cost of the division was \$807,874.

The *North Branch Division* unites with that last described at Northumberland, and following the course of the east branch of the Susquehanna River, passes through Danville, Berwick, and Wilkes-barre, terminates at Lackawana, in Wyoming Valley. It is 72 1-2 miles in length, and in that distance has an ascent of only 69 feet, which is overcome by 7 locks. The canal is of the same dimensions as the central division, and the locks are 90 feet by 17. The cost of this division was \$1,491,894.

The *West Branch Division* diverges from the Susquehanna division at Northumberland, in a northerly and westerly direction, by the left bank of the Susquehanna River, and passing through several towns, terminates at Farrandsville, a distance of 73 miles. It rises in this distance 138 1-2 feet, by means of 19 locks. There are also 8 dams, and several sections of pool navigation. The cost of the division was \$1,708,579.

The *Beaver Division* extends from the town of Beaver, on the Ohio River, along the Beaver and Shenango rivers, passing by the town of Newcastle, to Greenville, a distance of 72 3-4 miles, in a direction towards Conneaut Lake, and the town of Erie, on Lake Erie. Conneaut, which is at the summit, 17 miles from Greenville, and 45 1-2 miles from Erie, is at an elevation of 419 1-2 feet above the surface of low water in the Ohio at Beaver. The descent from Conneaut to the Erie is 510 feet. The level of the Ohio at Beaver is therefore 90 1-2 feet higher than that of Lake Erie. There are 17 locks on the lower part of this canal, which rise 132 feet to the slackwater navigation on Shenango River, above Newcastle, and thence to the summit there are 44 locks, surmounting a further rise of 287 1-2 feet. About three miles below Newcastle, this canal unites with the Mahoning Canal, which is chiefly in the State of Ohio, and terminates in its western extremity at Akron, on the Ohio Canal. This canal is 85 miles in length, 77 of which are in the State of Ohio, and 8 in Pennsylvania.

The *French Creek Division* extends from the town of Franklin, on the Alleghany River, by French Creek, to Meadville, and thence to the head of Conneaut Lake, where it unites with the Beaver division. It is 49 1-4 miles in length, and serves for a feeder from French Creek, above Meadville, to the Conneaut summit of the Beaver division. The feeder is 27 miles in length; and the canal, from the point where the feeder diverges from it, to Franklin, is 22 1-4 miles, in which distance there is a lockage of 128 1-2 feet.

These several divisions constitute what is now completed of the system of works called the Pennsylvania Canal. They are all united in a connected work, with the exception of the Delaware, the Beaver and the French Creek divisions, which are detached from the other and main work.

The divisions on which large sums of money have been expended, but which are not yet completed, are 1st, the *Erie Extension*, connected with the Beaver division, and extending from Greenville to Conneaut Lake, and thence to Lake Erie, a distance of 63 1-2 miles, with a lockage of 510 feet. On this division have been already expended \$2,919,507. The estimated cost of completing the line is \$536,142.

Second. The *North Branch Extension* begins at the termination of the North Branch division, at the mouth of Lackawana Creek, and following the course of the north branch of the Susquehanna River, a distance of 90 miles, terminates at the village of Athens, near the north line of the State. It has in this distance an ascent of 189 1-2 feet, which is surmounted by 23 locks. One of the objects of this work is to form a connexion, by means of the Chenango Canal, with

the Erie Canal of the State of New York, and thus to facilitate the exchange of commodities between the two States. There has been already expended on this division, the sum of \$2,348,276, and the estimated cost of completing it is \$1,298,416.

Third. The Wisconsin Canal extends from the western terminus of Lyken's Valley Railroad to the pool of Clark's Ferry Dam, at Duncan's Island. It is 12 miles in length, has a descent of 35 feet with 6 locks, and is estimated to cost \$376,195.

There are besides these works, which may be considered as composing the present system of State works in Pennsylvania, three others, which were commenced a few years since, but which have been suspended. On these works, \$801,890 were expended before they were abandoned, exclusive of various sums due to contractors for work, and to proprietors of land for damages. These were the Sinnemahoning Extension, 33 miles in length, which was estimated to cost \$1,388,099; the Kittanning Feeder, 14 miles in length, estimated to cost \$662,603; and the Gettysburgh Railroad, 91 miles in length, of which 13 are in the State of Maryland. A considerable extent of this road was graded, and the sum of \$622,891 was expended upon it before it was abandoned.

The value of these improvements, estimated at their cost, to the commencement of the present year, is \$29,292,165. The revenue derived from them, in the year 1841, amounted to \$1,055,394; of which the sum of \$498,423 was for canal tolls, \$263,937 for railroad tolls, and \$293,034 for motive power. The expenditures in that season were \$1,111,903, for canal and railroad purposes, exclusive of interest on loans, and salaries of collectors, &c.; and \$291,876 for motive power. The additional expenditure in the same year, for interest on canal loans, and salaries of collectors, weigh-masters, and lock-keepers, amounted to \$1,731,874, besides which \$7,779 were paid for damages by sparks from locomotives, making in all an expenditure of \$3,143,432.

The revenue and expenditures of these works, from the opening of a part of the central and western divisions in 1830, to the 1st of November 1840, were as follows: Receipts from canal and railroad tolls, and for motive power, \$6,181,624; payments for repairs, ordinary and extraordinary, salaries of agents, motive power, locomotives, ropes, implements, &c., including all expenses immediately attendant on the operation of the works, \$6,694,206. The amounts for the year ending November 1, 1840, were for revenue, \$1,072,620; expenditures, \$1,433,216.

It will be seen from this statement, that these costly and useful works have hitherto been productive of no net revenue to the State, and have contributed nothing toward the interest of the debt incurred

for defraying the cost. This result has caused much disappointment to the people of the State, and has naturally excited some surprise. It is to be accounted for in part by the facts above stated, in the selection of the routes; but these seem insufficient to account for the whole misfortune. It is no part of our purpose to go into an investigation of this question, any further than to suggest some of the obvious causes of the disappointment, without attempting to show to what extent each of them may have operated. One of these causes is probably to be found in a greater or less degree of improvidence and waste, in the construction and management of some parts of these vast works, which have been under the superintendence of a great number of persons, of various degrees of skill and fidelity. There have been, doubtless, much talent and judgment displayed in the construction of some parts of the works; but there has been improvident expenditure on other parts, and an insufficient degree of caution and prudence in guarding against the damages to which works of this nature are subject from storms and freshets, and other accidents. Perhaps the losses and cost of repairs, from this cause, have not been greater than should have been anticipated, from the difficulty of the localities, and the uncertainty to which such works are necessarily subject. A part of this improvidence has probably been a consequence of the number and frequent changes of the officers, engineers, and agents, who have been employed; some of which changes have been connected with political revolutions in the State. Losses of this kind, while they are to be deplored for their injurious effects on the permanent interests of the State, ought not to be attributed to a defect in the system of improvements, or its want of adaptation to promote the welfare of the community.

We hazard the opinion also, that the best method has not been adopted of opening these works to the use of the public, and of assessing the revenue to be derived from them. The method adopted is to leave it to individuals and private companies, to provide the means of transportation, and to become common carriers on the several routes, charging a toll for the use of the canals and railroads, and for the motive power on the railroads. The public, we think, might be more effectually and regularly served, and a larger income derived from the accommodation afforded, if agents were employed to provide railroad carriages and wagons, as well as canal boats, and to establish regular lines of transportation, both for passengers and goods, at the charge of the State; so that the State itself should be the carrier, and entitled to the profits of the business. It is apparent, that if the business were thus placed in the hands of competent and faithful agents, it could be done much more efficiently and economically, by being under a single system of management, so that an

equal amount of effective service could be performed for a less amount of expenditure. There would, consequently, be the double advantage of a greater amount of net profit on the transaction, and of securing that profit to the State, to which it properly belongs by way of remuneration for its expenditure. The only contingency in the attainment of this result, is in the uncertainty of obtaining prudent and faithful agents; for it is obvious, that private companies will not engage and continue in the business of carrying, unless they can make it profitable; and equally obvious, that if it be profitable to companies operating each on a comparatively small scale, and in competition with one another, the same business would be more profitable, if carried on by the union of the same means in one system of coöperation, with full power to make the arrangements which will best suit their own convenience. It appears, that for the transport of passengers over the Columbia road, the State receives, when the carriages are half filled or upwards, less than two and a half cents per mile, while the passenger pays four cents. The residue, exceeding half the amount received by the State, goes to the carrier, to compensate for the use of the carriage, and the services of the conductor. In the carriage of goods, the State receives a still smaller proportion of the amount paid for freight. If in this division of the profits, the carrier does not receive an undue proportion, for the capital invested and service performed by him, it is because the business is so much divided by competition, as to leave each competitor an insufficient share to enable him to operate advantageously. Similar considerations would apply, in favor of the State becoming carriers over the whole line from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh, to which might be added some others, arising from the greater extent of the line, a greater complexity of operations to be performed, requiring a great number of agents, all responsible to a single head. But it would be foreign from our purpose to pursue this inquiry.

It is apparent, from this view of the public improvements of Pennsylvania, that although they are, doubtless, of great benefit to the people of the State, in enhancing the value of property, and the profits of industry, they impose a great burden upon the finances of the State, which can be relieved only by rendering them productive of a more ample income. This is likely to be effected by degrees, through improvements in the system of management, and through the increase of business upon them, arising from the increase of population, and the advance of manufacturing industry, in the interior of the State. It appears from a recent statement by the Executive of the State, that the present amount of the debt contracted for the construction of these works, is \$30,055,013, which bears an interest of 5 per cent. payable semi-annually, and of course imposes an annual charge upon the State of \$1,500,000.

Besides these public works, there are several costly and valuable canals and railroads, built by private incorporated companies. These are upon routes better chosen in reference to income, and for the present, at least, are of more extensive utility to the public. We shall not be able to go into a description of them all, but will give a brief notice of the more important.

One of the oldest and most expensive of the works, designed for the promotion of the trade of Philadelphia, and of its intercourse with the interior, by way of the Susquehanna River, is the Chesapeake and Delaware Canal. This canal, although not situated within the State, may, for the reason above mentioned, and from its being chiefly owned and managed by persons residing in Philadelphia, be regarded as a Pennsylvania work. It begins at a point on the Delaware River, 42 miles below Philadelphia, and crossing the State of Delaware, and a narrow tract on the eastern shore of Maryland, it unites with the waters of the Chesapeake Bay, at the distance of a few miles from the mouth of the Susquehanna, and in a direction towards the harbor of Baltimore. It is 13 1-2 miles in length, is 66 feet wide at the water surface, is 10 feet deep, and has two lift and two tide locks, each 100 feet long by 22 feet wide. It was a costly work, partly from the difficult character of the soil, and partly from the magnitude of a cut through the principal elevation of ground which intercepted its course. A good deal of expense has been occasioned by the sliding of earth at the deep cut. The cost of the work was about \$2,750,000. It was finished in 1829, and for a short period it was made the principal channel for the transport of passengers, on the route between Philadelphia and Baltimore; a canal-boat, drawn by horses, being provided to complete the regular line of communication between steamboats, running regularly from the two cities to the outlets of the canal. It was superseded in this use by the opening of the Newcastle and Frenchtown Railroad, in the year 1832. The number of boats which passed through the canal in the year ending June 1, 1841, was 6,384, and the amount of tolls received was \$54,112.

A more extensive, and hitherto a more useful work, is the Schuylkill Navigation. It consists of a succession of canals and navigable pools of the Schuylkill River, beginning below the dam at Fairmount Water-works, on the western side of the city of Philadelphia, and 6 miles from the mouth of the river, and extending to Port Carbon, in Schuylkill county, near the town of Pottsville. The whole length of navigation is 108 miles, of which 58 miles consist of artificial canals, and 50 miles of navigable pools, formed by dams across the river, which are connected by locks with the canals. The ascent, from the mouth of the Schuylkill to the basin at Mount Carbon, is

610 feet. There are 129 locks, and 34 dams. The canal is 36 feet wide at the top, 22 at the bottom, and 3 1-2 feet deep. The locks are 80 feet long, and 17 wide. The canal passes through one tunnel of 385 feet in length. The work was begun in 1815, and it was partially opened for use in 1818. The transport of anthracite coal upon it began in 1825, when the amount carried was 6,500 tons. This amount has increased in every succeeding year, with two exceptions, and in 1841 it was 584,692 tons. The cost of the work was \$3,818,605, of which \$1,665,600 were paid from assessments on 33,312 shares of capital stock, at \$50 each, and the residue from loans, and from the income. The whole amount of income from tolls, in the year 1841, was \$557,639, of which \$482,460 were derived from the tolls on coal, the produce of all other articles amounting to \$75,228. The amount of toll on merchandise ascending was \$47,309, and of tolls descending, \$510,380. Of the amount of coal brought down the canal in 1841, it is estimated that 40,584 tons were delivered between Port Carbon and Philadelphia; 78,296 were shipped from the Fairmount landing to New York, in 1,454 canal boats; 367,812 tons were shipped on board 3,065 vessels bound for various ports; 96,000 were sold for consumption at Philadelphia; and 28,000 tons, or 2,000 more than at the commencement of the preceding year, remained at the landing on the 1st of January last. Among the other articles of tonnage brought down the canal in 1841, were 2,392 tons of bituminous coal, brought from the Susquehanna mines, by way of the Pennsylvania and Union Canals; 5,093 tons of flour, 13,997 of grain, and 8,000 of lumber. The amount of tonnage ascending was 38,890 tons; which consisted in part of plaster, 6,241 tons; salt 2,621; fish 640; iron 3,521; lumber 3,833; rails 1,337; and various merchandise 8,027. The toll on coal has been reduced from time to time, having been at first established at 6 cents a bushel, or \$1 68 a ton, but afterwards reduced to \$1 00 a ton; in 1839 to 90 cents; and it is now reduced to 75 cents for transport from Mount Carbon to Philadelphia; 70 cents from Schuylkill Haven, and 56 cents from Port Clinton. The opening of the Philadelphia, Reading, and Pottsville Railroad, is likely to have a very material effect upon the income of this work.

The Union Canal extends from the Schuylkill River near Reading, to the Susquehanna, at Middletown, a few miles below Harrisburgh, and is 82 miles in length. On leaving the Schuylkill, it passes through the valley of Tulpehocken Creek, a distance of 47 1-4 miles, to the summit level, which is 7 miles in length, at an elevation of 498 1-2 feet above the level of the tide; and thence it descends 208 1-2 feet in 33 3-4 miles, along the right bank of the Swatara, to the Susquehanna. The canal is 36 feet wide at the top,

and 24 at the bottom, and 4 feet deep. It has 93 lift and 2 guard locks, 75 feet in length, and 8 1-2 in width. A navigable feeder has been constructed from Swatara Creek, of 6 3-4 miles in length, which, with a pool on the creek, furnishes a navigable channel 23 miles to Pine Grove, and from the latter point a railroad has been laid, through a gap in Sharp Mountain, leading to the coal mines.

The *Lehigh Navigation*, like the works on the Schuylkill, consists of a series of canals and navigable pools, on the Lehigh River, in the eastern part of the State. These works extend from Easton, on the Delaware, at the head of the Delaware division of the Pennsylvania Canal, to Mauch Chunk, a distance of 46 1-4 miles, and thence to the Great Falls at Stoddartsville, a further distance of 38 1-4 miles, making in all a navigation of 84 1-2 miles, of which 39 1-4 consists of canals, 30 1-2 of pools, 2 1-2 of locks, and the rest of sluices. The canals below Mauch Chunk are 60 feet wide at top, 45 at bottom, and 5 feet deep. There are 44 lift locks 100 feet long by 22 wide of 6 to 9 feet lift, and rising in all 353 feet. They pass boats carrying over 100 tons. There are 8 dams, from 300 to 550 feet long, and from 8 to 19 1-2 feet high. The canals above Mauch Chunk are of nearly the same dimensions, have 29 locks, 100 feet long and 20 wide, of from 10 to 30 feet lift. The locks will admit boats carrying over 100 tons. There is one lock of 30 feet lift, which is capable of being filled or emptied, in 2 1-2 minutes. There are 20 dams of 180 to 375 feet in length, and from 14 to 38 feet in height. From the Great Falls at Stoddartsville to Wright's Creek, a distance of 12 miles, there is a descending navigation of artificial freshets. From Wright's Creek to Mauch Chunk, 26 miles, the navigation consists of a succession of pools, locks, and canals, for a distance of 26 miles.

There are several railroads connected with the Lehigh Navigation, leading from it to various coal mines, whence, as well as from the mines of the Lehigh Company, large quantities of anthracite coal are brought down to Easton, and thence conveyed to the Philadelphia market, by way of the Delaware division of the Pennsylvania Canal, and across the State of New Jersey to New York, by the Morris Canal. The principal of these are the Mauch Chunk, the Beaver Meadow, the Hazleton, Nesquehoning, Wilkesbarre, Buck Mountain, and Sugar Loaf. The operations of the canal were interrupted during several months of the last season, by the injury occasioned to it by a very destructive freshet in the preceding winter. The quantity of coal sent to market during the season by this canal, from the mines of the Lehigh Company, was 78,165 tons; from the Beaver Meadow mines, 25,841; from the Hazleton Company's mines, 21,035; and from the Sugar Loaf and other mines, 17,117, making

in all 142,158 tons. The quantity transported by the same channel in 1840, was 225,286 tons.

Tidewater Canal begins at Wrightsville, on the right bank of the Susquehanna, opposite to the town of Columbia, and extends along the bank of the river to its mouth, at Havre de Grace, a distance of 45 miles. About a third part of its length is in the State of Maryland, and it serves to open a communication between the Central division of the Pennsylvania Canal and Chesapeake Bay, from which point canal boats may be towed, either to Baltimore or to Philadelphia. It is 50 feet wide at the top, and 5 feet deep. It has 29 lift, and 2 guard locks. They will admit the passage of 2 boats at a time, each 85 feet in length, or a raft of 170 feet, and 16 feet wide. The whole lockage is 133 feet. A company has been formed at Philadelphia, for the purpose of towing boats descending this canal to Havre de Grace, laden with the products of the west, and of the interior of the State, through the Chesapeake and Delaware Canal to Philadelphia. During the past season 459 boats, many of them of 70 tons burden, were towed from Havre de Grace to Philadelphia, and 502 in the opposite direction.

In addition to these canals, there are several of less extent, the principal of which are the *Conestoga Canal*, extending from the city of Lancaster to the Susquehanna, 18 miles in length, with a descent of 62 feet, by 9 locks; the *Cadorus Navigation*, 11 miles in length, of which 8 miles consist of slack-water pools, extending from York to the Susquehanna; and *Bald Eagle, and Spring Creek Navigation*, extending from the West Branch division of the Pennsylvania Canal, along the Bald Eagle Creek, 25 miles, to Bellepoule. This last work has been aided by the State, by a subscription of \$25,000 to the stock, and guarantying 5 per cent. interest on \$200,000.

The railroads in Pennsylvania, the fruit of the enterprise of private individuals, are even more numerous and more productive than the canals. The Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore Railroad, leads from Philadelphia to Baltimore, a distance of 97 miles. But about a quarter part of it is in the State of Pennsylvania, the rest being in the States of Delaware and Maryland. It was built originally by three companies, which have been since the completion of the road united in one, under the sanction of the legislatures of the three States. Three kinds of iron rails are used on different portions of the road, viz., what is called the bridge rail, which weighs 40 lbs. per yard; the T rail, weighing 56 lbs. per yard, and a heavy bar rail 1 3-4 inches in thickness and 2 1-2 inches in width. The part of the road between Wilmington and the Susquehanna River is graded to a width of 35 feet, and on the other portions 25 feet. The cost of this road, with its materials and appendages, according to a report of

the directors made to the stockholders on the 28th of January last, amounted to \$4,588,289, exclusive of a large debt incurred for stock owned by the company, and for bonds receivable, and other items, which swell the amount of assets, at their cost, to over \$5,900,000. The amount of capital stock issued is \$2,818,350, and of loans, and of notes and bonds payable, \$3,082,640, making a total of \$5,900,990. The receipts of income, during the year 1841, amounted to \$603,868, and the expenses, in which was included a large amount for permanent outlays, not properly belonging to current expenses, to \$307,939. This road, being on the shortest and most expeditious route between Philadelphia and Baltimore, commands a great amount of travel, and in the year 1839 the number of passengers was 213,650. The amount of receipts for passengers in that year was \$416,974; for transportation of merchandise, \$39,239, and for the mail, \$27,497.

The *Philadelphia, Reading, and Pottsville* Railroad is 102 miles in length. It begins upon the west bank of the Delaware River, about 3 miles north of the centre of the city of Philadelphia, and proceeding northwesterly to the Schuylkill, crosses that river 3 miles above Fairmount. After following the right bank of the river 33 miles to Phoenixville, it there passes through a tunnel 1,932 feet in length, and crosses again to the left bank. It thence continues its course along the valley of the Schuylkill, through Pottstown to Reading, which is distant 66 miles from the place of beginning. From Reading it still continues along the valley of the Schuylkill, frequently crossing the river, and also the Schuylkill Canal, and passing through a tunnel of 1,600 feet at Pulpit Rock, terminates at Pottsville, in the immediate vicinity of the coal mines, at an elevation of 606 feet above the level of high water in the Delaware. In its whole course it is either level, or has a moderately ascending grade, so that heavily loaded cars descend through its whole length, with the aid of a very small degree of motive power. The grade is such, that an engine is capable of bringing down, through the whole line, about the same number of cars loaded with coal, as it is able to carry upward, empty. It is, therefore, favorably adapted for the transport of coal, which it receives at the mouth of the mine, and delivers either in the city, or on board vessels at the railroad wharf on the Delaware, directly from the cars. The transport is thus made at considerably less cost than it can be made by the canal, which runs parallel with it. The cost of the road from Philadelphia to Reading, was \$2,108,905, exclusive of land damages, which amounted to \$140,083; \$229,089 for depots and stations at Philadelphia, Reading, and other places; and \$188,140 for engines and cars. The cost estimated by the engineers Montcure and Wirt Robinson, for completing the road from Reading to Pottsville, was \$1,874,754, and it is understood that it

has been done within this sum, making \$4,540,971 for the cost of the road from the Delaware to Pottsville, with a sufficient number of engines and cars to commence the working; but it was computed that a much larger *matériel* will be required for working the road to the extent which the demand for coal will justify, rendering necessary an expenditure of capital amounting in the whole to about \$5,000,000. The road was completed and opened by a public celebration, on the 10th of January, 1842. On the morning of that day, 1,200 citizens assembled at Pottsville, and in a train of 43 cars left the depot for Philadelphia, with one car loaded on that morning, 400 feet beneath the surface of the earth. The train proceeded to Reading, although its course was impeded by a heavy snow which fell that morning, followed by another train of 52 cars loaded with coal. At Reading, the passenger train was joined by 30 more cars, filled with two military companies and citizens, making in all over 2,000 passengers, drawn by one engine. They arrived in Philadelphia at 7 o'clock in the evening, and partook of a supper, provided for them at the Washington House. On the following day the party returned, in two trains, in the midst of a snow-storm, to Pottsville.

The *Danville and Pottsville* Railroad begins at a point 2 1-2 miles northwest of Pottsville, where it is united with the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad, by means of the Mount Carbon Railroad, and runs northerly and westerly 44 1-2 miles, to Danville, on the northeastern division of the Pennsylvania Canal. This railroad crosses a ridge of Broad Mountain, and the summit between the Mahonoy and the Shamokin Creeks, by means of several inclined planes. This road was opened for the transportation of Shamokin coal to the Susquehanna River, in December 1840, and 15,800 tons of coal were transported upon it in that month. The object of this railroad is to furnish an outlet from the coal mines to the Susquehanna River, and by the canals along that river, to tide-water at Havre de Grace. The coal may be also brought through the Union Canal, and the lower part of the Schuylkill Navigation, to Philadelphia; but the extension of the Schuylkill Navigation to Port Carbon, and that of the Reading Railroad to Pottsville, with an immediate connexion with this railroad, seem to supersede the use of the more circuitous route.

The *Lehigh and Susquehanna* Railroad, 19 1-2 miles long, extends from Whitehaven, on the Lehigh Navigation, to Wilkesbarre, on the northeastern division of the Pennsylvania Canal. This railroad was constructed for the purpose of giving an outlet to the coal of the Lehigh region, through the navigable channels of the Susquehanna, and also for the products of the country on the north branch of the Susquehanna, through the Lehigh Navigation, either to Philadelphia or to New York. The distance from Wilkesbarre, by the Sus-

quehanna to Havre de Grace, is 196 miles, and by that route to Baltimore, 256 miles. By the Lehigh and Delaware Canals to Philadelphia, the distance is 170 miles, and by the Lehigh and Morris Canals to New York, 193 miles. For the purpose of adapting this railroad to the purpose of uniting the two lines of navigation, and of facilitating and extending the trade of both, the railroad has been constructed with a strong rail and firm track, so as to admit of the transmission of loaded boats from one canal to the other. It is to be doubted whether this system of transport will be found advantageous, to any great extent.

There are several other railroads in the interior of the State, chiefly for the transport of coal, which, as they are not of extensive public interest, are here passed by.

The *Philadelphia and Norristown* Railroad, which proceeds directly between these two places, chiefly along the left bank of the Schuylkill, is 17 miles in length, exclusive of a branch, which diverges from it, at a distance of 3 or 4 miles from the city, to Germantown. The length of this branch is 4 miles.

The *Philadelphia and Trenton* Railroad commences within the city of Philadelphia, and passing through the towns of Frankford and Bristol, on the western side of the Delaware River, a distance of 24 1-4 miles, terminates at Morrisville, opposite to the city of Trenton. It there unites with the Trenton and New Brunswick railroad, which is 27 miles in length, and with that together with a third railroad, extending to Jersey City, forms the most direct of the two principal lines of travel between Philadelphia and New York. The travel upon it was suspended in the course of the last season, for the purpose of taking up the rail, and substituting one which shall be more substantial and permanent. Its position on the principal thoroughfare between the great Atlantic cities, insures to it, if well conducted, a large amount of travel, and must make it a productive route.

The *York and Wrightsville* Railroad, 13 miles in length, unites with the Columbia Railroad at Columbia, crosses the Susquehanna to Wrightsville, and proceeds thence to York, where it unites with the Susquehanna Railroad, leading thence 56 miles to Baltimore. These three works thus form a continued line of railroad, by way of Lancaster, Columbia, and York, between Philadelphia and Baltimore, a distance of 151 miles.

The *Harrisburgh and Lancaster* Railroad, leads from the city of Lancaster, where it unites with the Columbia Railroad, to Harrisburgh, the capital of the State, a distance of 35 1-2 miles. Its steepest grade is 42 feet per mile, and its shortest radius of curvature 1,000 feet. It passes through a tunnel of 850 feet in length. It was opened in its whole length with a single track in 1838, having

cost \$859,537. This railroad, with the part of the State road east of Lancaster, forms not only the principal route of travel from Philadelphia to Harrisburgh, but the most direct and expeditious route to Pittsburgh. The traveller by railroad to Harrisburgh may there enter upon the Pennsylvania Canal, and reach Pittsburgh by way of the Portage Railroad.

This review of the internal improvements of the State of Pennsylvania, shows that a vast amount of money and of labor has been expended for these objects. It must be admitted that a large amount of this expenditure has been thrown away upon works which will prove wholly unproductive, and is consequently lost. This loss arises in some cases from the establishment of expensive works in parts of the State where the population and business are insufficient to give them an adequate support, and in other cases from the prosecution of two or more lines of works upon the same route, for the accomplishment of the same object, where the success of one work destroys, or greatly impairs the value of the other. This is a misfortune, arising in part from the fact, that the advantages of railroads were not understood, until canals were already projected, and partially executed, on some of the routes, to which railroads are much better adapted. An example of this kind of interference may be cited in the Schuylkill Navigation, and the Philadelphia, Reading, and Pottsville Railroad, each works which, if relieved from the rivalry of the other, would be highly useful to the public, and would afford a liberal income to their proprietors; but as they both follow the same route, and as one is fully adequate to serve all the purposes of both, the millions which have been expended in the construction of one, may be regarded as an entire waste. The railroad will accomodate the travel much more satisfactorily than the canal, and it bids fair to take a large proportion of the coal transportation, at a lower cost than it can be accomplished by the canal. There are other instances of a greater or less degree of interference.

But with all the deductions to be made from the value of these magnificent works, which have probably not been equalled in extent by works constructed by the same amount of population in an equal space of time; they add greatly to the wealth, and to the means of future prosperity of that rich, and rapidly growing Commonwealth.

M I S C E L L A N Y .

LORENZO STARK :

OR, A GERMAN MERCHANT OF THE OLD SCHOOL.

[Concluded from page 53.]

CHAPTER XXXIII.

THE more important the point of marriage had been made by the explanation of the father, so much more desirous was the son to know his opinion of the widow, and so much more afraid was the daughter of making the attempt to discover it. The following afternoon, however, she risked a visit at tea time, which it must be owned did not go off very happily.

"Do you know," she began, "dear father, what an important event took place yesterday?"

"No," said the old gentleman.

"The brave Cavalier Wraker has happily led his Dulcinea to the altar."

"Has he, the poor old fellow?"

"Oh, do not laugh at him, he must feel so happy, so very happy."

"Yes, indeed, he is near the kingdom of heaven."

"The future kingdom, do you mean? I doubt whether he thinks much about that. I only think of old Wraker, as regards his love affair. I remember what my father told me about those innocent little orphans, who now have a protector. Ah! the dear little orphan we had with us yesterday; would it not be well if he had a protector?"

The mother gave her daughter a glance of warning, and the father became at once very serious. "You had better let Heaven take care of that—to meddle in such matters. But what would I have? I am foolish, very foolish."

"My dear father," said the daughter, in astonishment.

"I was about to give a woman like you some rules of prudence,—as though you needed such."

"From whom would I prefer to take them, rather than you?"

"No, no, that would be holding a candle to the sun. But you are yet too young for such follies. Matchmaking is only business for old, laid-up matrons."

The peculiar look which he assumed at uttering these words, and the displeased and vexed expression of her mother troubled the daughter so much, that she became immediately silent. Something unpleasant must have passed between the old people, which she had revived by her remark, and this made her very sad.

"For the love of Heaven, tell me," said she, as soon as her father had gone out, "what have I done, dear mother?"

"Oh, what a strange, whimsical man your father is. Can one ever know him? I believe if I live with him a hundred years, I shall never understand him entirely. Only imagine what trouble I had with him yesterday, on account of Madam Lilius."

"On account of Madam Lilius? that is the most unpleasant thing you could tell me."

"He found her waiting here when he returned from your house."

"Indeed —"

She wished to thank him that he had relieved her from her embarrassment with Horn; but he forbade her to thank him, and turned the conversation immediately to her oldest boy, whom he had seen at your house, and said so many kind things about the child, that he won the heart of the good woman, and put her very much at her ease. He then drew her on from one subject to another, and seemed so pleased with her, so delighted."

"My dear mother, you make me inexpressibly curious. Tell me in one word what happened."

"Willingly, if I can only remember exactly how it went. Her father's household management, I think, was mentioned, yes, yes."

"And she knew how to answer? could explain matters?"

"Every thing, even to the most trifling particular."

"Ah, I understand; that would please him."

"Very much. Then he came to the sudden change, which was brought about by her marriage, in which a life of labor was exchanged for one of pleasure, and thought this exchange must have been very delightful to her. She probably would not have gone back into the country for any thing."

"Observe my father, — he was spreading a net for her."

"I do not know whether she thought so, or — enough — she was not disconcerted, but assured him, that in the midst of fashionable life she never looked back to her paternal mansion without regret. Man, she said, was made for labor, and labor alone made him happy; that amusement, as she knew from her own experience, was only a seasoning, and must be used as a seasoning. If it were used for regular food it destroyed the health, and took from pleasure its own attraction. Now when she had to consult the wishes of no one but herself, she was again able to lead an active life, and as soon as she felt herself free from her harassing cares, she should lead a happy one."

"Beautiful, fine; that was spoken after his own heart."

"Then the conversation turned upon her mercantile affairs, in which she has already employed herself so much, and she gave him so clear an account of them, that he commended her highly. But she dis-

claimed all praise, and referred it to her instructor, as she called your brother, and then began to speak of him with such hearty gratitude, such deep feeling, that your father and I were not a little moved by it. Her emotion, at last, prevented her saying more."

"But, dear mother, in all this I see no subject for a dispute."

"There is none."

"No? but you said at first ——"

"Hear to the end. When the widow had gone, your father remained here for a time, and spoke very approvingly of her, and then of your husband, who he said understood men very well, and had first shown him this agreeable woman in the true light. 'What a shame,' said he, 'that she must belong to such a man as that Lilius, who was so unworthy of her, and who might have brought her and her children to beggary.' I took this opportunity to say, 'What do you think, father? she would have been the right wife for our son; and as she is now a widow, I think we might speak to him about her. She is still young, and it would certainly be a very good match.'"

"Ah, my dear mother, I am afraid that was too rash, too distinct."

"Perhaps so; but then I saw the iron glowing so finely, that it would have seemed a sin not to have taken the hammer and given a little stroke."

"Yes, if it had not set the sparks a flying. It is such a case; but what had he to say against the marriage? what did he bring forward?"

"That," said Madam Stark, and struck her bare hand upon the tea-table.

"How? did he say nothing?"

"Not a mortal word. But he looked at me—you know how he can look,—with a pair of eyes. I wondered what was coming; but nothing, not a lisp. He gave me a bitter, very bitter look, and shaking his head, left the room."

"That is singular, very singular. What would I give to have had him speak!"

"In the evening, at table, something more transpired. He was again in his usual humor, and jeered at the folly of match-making, by which so little thanks and so much ingratitude was gained, and spoke of old women, whose days of coquetry were over, but who busied themselves in the love affairs of others. In short, he grew so sarcastic, and hinted such unpleasant things that I, in my turn, shook my head, made a sour face, and left the room."

"Better, still better, my dear mother, than if he had spoken; but if I could only understand ——"

Hereupon the ladies began to form their prying conjectures, and to exhaust their own minds for reasons why the proposed marriage with the widow displeased the old gentleman so much, for that it did displease him they considered as settled. Was it the widow's two children? Madam Harvest thought it could not be. Was it a remainder of the old prejudice against her? Madam Stark thought it could not

be that. Was it the small property of the lady ? This neither of them could believe. In short, the old gentleman was this time, what he had often been before to them, a riddle."

When the Doctor came in, these conjectures had another added to them. He thought over the widow and her circumstances, and came to the conclusion, that it was not so much the marriage which gave umbrage, as the proposition about it ; the advice, the talk. "He certainly wishes," said he, "that our brother should act with perfect freedom, without any foreign influence and coercion, and make a choice entirely after his own heart." If the Doctor had added, that the shake of the head referred less to the widow than the son, and that the displeasure he had expressed was less dissatisfaction with her than distrust of him, he would probably, instead of the half, have spoken the whole truth. The old man might have thought it possible that his son would allow himself to be persuaded into this marriage ; but at the same time judged from his character that he would in the sequel repent the step, and then the marriage would be an unhappy one.

On their way home, the Doctor and his wife agreed that their brother might hear of the advantageous opinion of the father for the widow, but not of the little falling out with their mother. His courage, both rightly judged, was to be kept up, not cooled. And finally, as every thing had now been done which was possible in the way of preparation, they thought it necessary that the brother should put the finishing stroke, and see his father as soon as possible.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

ON the following day, the son ostensibly came back to the city, and toward evening sent by Monsieur Schlicht to ask his father whether he might be so happy as to speak to him alone. He was immediately admitted, and found the words of the Doctor confirmed, that when he came into the presence of his father, he would meet with a look, when he spoke to him, with a tone, entirely different from what he had been accustomed to. The reception was indeed so kind, the question as to what effect the country air at this season, which was not the pleasantest, had had on his health, was asked with so much interest, that the anxiety of the son was much diminished.

To lighten his heart still more, he immediately drew near his father, and began a petition for forgiveness of all which had previously taken place ; but the father was so generous as not to allow him to finish. "Have you," said he, "spoken to your brother-in-law ? Has he mentioned to you my views ?"

"Yes, father ——"

"And your opinion of them ?"

"I have no words for my gratitude." He took the hand of the old gentleman, and kissed it with as much respect as emotion.

"I will fulfil them most sacredly ; not only as your wishes, but also

as the wish of my own heart. To be active, is now my only desire, and as your advice, your fatherly counsel will accompany me in every important step, I promise myself the best, the most fortunate success to my exertions. It will be my most zealous effort, my pride, my highest satisfaction, to give you pleasure."

"That I shall have, if you succeed. But why do you not mention one of the principal conditions, your marriage? Have you yet made no choice?"

With the timidity with which questions of this kind are usually answered, the son said, "I have."

"Do I know your beloved?"

With still greater timidity, he brought out the answer, "for a short time only." But quick enough did the words escape him, when he began to praise the virtues of his loved one, and to abuse the wickedness of certain ill-disposed persons, whose malicious, poisonous arrows even the most unspotted virtue could not escape.

"This preface," said the father, "might make me uneasy. I beg you, tell me the name of the lady."

It was no help to the son, that he spoke the name of the widow in a low, feeble voice. He was obliged to repeat it so much the louder.

"Indeed," said the old man, earnestly, while he took several steps about the room, "Madam Lilius? is that only a story you are telling me, or —"

"It is the declaration of my most earnest, hearty wish, for which I beseech your good word, and your paternal support."

"Between ourselves, I hope it is not yet all settled. You are not engaged?"

How happy was the son that he had followed the advice of his brother-in-law, and could now assure his father, with perfect truth, that not even the first word of love had been exchanged between him and the widow. He had not taken any steps under the implied consent of his father.

"So much the better," said the old man; "then there is no step to retrace."

"To retrace, father? shall it then, must it then be so?"

"I see, then, very clearly, the course your passion has taken. You have behaved to the widow with an uprightness, a generosity, of which your heart bears you witness, which does you great honor. It is, therefore, natural, that the sight of her becomes pleasant to you, for it reminds you of the best action of your life; but real, hearty passion, real heartfelt love, which will last until the end of life, and will make up to you for all you must give up and sacrifice for her, — no, my son, this I cannot possibly imagine. It is impossible."

"Why impossible, father, and what must I relinquish on her account? what must I sacrifice?"

"Is the wealth nothing, that another might bring you? The widow is herself without money."

"True, except —"

"What comes to her from the poor wreck of the Lillias property, is half ours, by right?"

"I will restrict myself, father, I will economize in the business and in my household expenses as much as possible. I will be in the highest degree active and prudent."

"Good; but all this you will in the end ask, and I must ask, for whom? for a woman who is none of the youngest, and of whose beauty there will, perhaps, be no trace after a few years——"

"Is it, then, her beauty, which attracts me? God is my witness I have compared her with no one else. What has touched me, and gained my heart for ever, are the virtues which she has displayed in so many sad, so many trying situations, and of which, for months, I was happily a near witness."

The old man again paced the room, and was silent. "She has children," he again began.

"They increase my love to her; they are two little angels."

"But angels who have wants. If the little they inherit from their father should by chance be lost, these children have called you father, and you are pledged to take a fatherly care of them."

"That I shall certainly do, and do it joyfully."

"Joyfully? What you spend for them is lost to your own children. On a race of strangers you will expend what might benefit your own. I pray you, how could you have such a thought? how entertain it for a moment?"

The son knew his father too well, not to be extremely surprised at this. "You do not speak from your own soul, my father; impossible!——"

"What do you mean? from what can a man think, but from his own feelings?"

"You are creating a strange, narrow-contracted soul, which you are attributing to me as my own. From this you are taking arguments to confuse or convince me. I see I have for ever lost your regard. I must take my own course. I will do so. My only wish before God is," and he clasped his hands firmly, "that you may live long, long, and yet see with your own eyes, how much you have been mistaken in me, how much injustice you have done me." He turned from his father toward the window, with a heart full of emotion, and torn by contradictory feelings.

His father could not ask for any further proof of his sentiments, and the entire change of his character. After a deep, solemn silence, in which he left his son time to collect himself, he called him gently by his christian name,—"Charles?"

At the tender, tremulous tone in which that word was spoken, the son involuntarily turned round. What were his emotions, when he saw the good, the venerable old man standing, his eyes filled with tears, and his arms spread open to receive him. "Charles," repeated he, "why have you kept yourself so long concealed from me?" and now the son, overpowered by his sensations, though he was still un-

certain what to expect, seized the hand of his father in both his own, and covered it with kisses.

"Will you," said the old man, "in this delightful hour, — this hour certainly never to be forgotten by either of us, — will you swear to me, sacredly swear, as you have now declared your feelings, that you never even in the deepest recesses of your heart will reproach the good Madam Lilius or her children with their want of fortune; that you depend on her love and virtue more than on any wealth; and that you will always care for her children as if they were your own?"

The son was not only affected, he was overpowered. "I will, I will," stammered he, and could not utter another word.

"I accept your emotion as an oath;" and then he placed his hand on his shoulder, drew him toward him, and kissed him again and again with the greatest tenderness. "With regard to the manner in which I establish you, depend upon me. I am not an illiberal father; therefore take my house and business to yourself, and, moreover, my most tender blessing for your love."

Such sudden and varied changes of feeling were more than the heart of the son could bear. Instead of thanking his father, he sunk backwards to reach a chair, on which he threw himself, almost breathless. A sudden flow of tears relieved him, while the old man, who seated himself near him, and helped to dry his tears, said to him, — "Command yourself; be a man, do not weep, dearest Charles. We must go to your mother, and let her share our pleasure. Who knows how long and impatiently she has been awaiting us? And if I am not entirely mistaken, we shall find there two others, who are looking for our appearance with anxiety."

CHAPTER XXXV.

THE Doctor and Madam Harvest had in fact been some time with Madam Stark, that they might be able to learn as soon as possible the result of the conversation. How anxious was their suspense, may be judged from the interest they had heretofore taken in their brother, and the various exertions they had made on his account. They thought they had satisfactory reasons for hoping the best result, and yet they could not help, from the very depth of their sympathy, sharing the fear and anxiety of their mother, who, because her interest was still deeper and more earnest, had none but sad forebodings.

So much the more delightful to them all was the surprise of seeing the father come in accompanied by the son, and betraying his satisfaction by his smiles, as well as his emotion by his moist, red eyes. He held the hand of his son, whose face was still covered by his handkerchief, and led him to his mother, saying, "Here, dear mother, I bring you a good, worthy son, who has a kind consideration for your age, and will relieve you from the cares of housekeeping, which have long borne heavily upon you. He will bring you a young, pleasant wife,

whom he begs you to accept for a daughter, and desires you to pronounce your maternal blessing on his love. You never will guess his choice, — and you certainly will not," added he, turning to his daughter, and laughing at the two, but at the same time threatening them with his finger.

The son could not immediately dry his eyes while receiving the good wishes of his mother, and the congratulations of his sister and brother-in-law. All at last joined in thanking the father, and caressing him, who kissed them all, but did not recover his usual jocular humor for the rest of the evening. The feelings which the conversation with his son had excited in him were of too serious a nature to allow him immediately to return to the little jests, with which he was accustomed to season his conversation.

He took upon himself the next day to be the mediator of his son's marriage. Whether Madam Lilius was agreeably or disagreeably surprised by this visit, whether she gave an affirmative or a negative answer, no one wished to be the first to ask. The marriage was one of the happiest in the city. All the members of the family were united by the most tender affection. Mr. Stark rejoiced during a long protracted life in the prosperity and perfect harmony of his family; and enjoyed the sweet, and at one time almost unhopd-for happiness, of pressing grandchildren to his bosom, who were not only of his blood, but also bore his name.

MILITARY ORGANIZATION OF CHINA.

THE authentic sources of information relative to the political and military organization of China are so few, that all details concerning it, coming from an independent and authentic source, are deserving of attention. The following communication was, not long since, published in the St. Petersburg Gazette, having been addressed to the imperial Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg, from the Monk Hyacinth, a corresponding member of that Academy at Kiathka, in Siberia, on the frontier of China. Kiathka is situated in the government of Irkutsk, in Eastern Siberia, and opposite to the Chinese city of Maimatchin, 4,300 miles from St. Petersburg, and 1,000 from Peking. It is the only point at which the commerce between the two countries, carried on by caravans, meets. This commerce, which is all carried on in the way of barter, is estimated to amount to near two millions of dollars per annum. The Chinese city is better built than the Russian. Both have their citadels and garrisons. At Kiathka, the Russian Missionaries of the Seminary of Peking have a preparatory house. This information is of particular interest at this time, though it is somewhat obscure, and it can be little relied upon as affording the means to judge of the actual efficiency of the Chinese army. It is,

nevertheless, crude, and it may be found of use in enabling us to understand more fully the history of operations which may be presented to us from China.

“ *Kiathka, August 24, 1837.*

“ The population of China increases annually in an unequal proportion. According to the census taken in the different governments of China, in 1812, it was found that there were in all 361,691,000 souls. In this number there were eight military standards, composed of Mandchoux, of Mongols, and Chinese, without counting the foreign tribes, who are dependent on China. They are in general counted in families, of which there are in all 188,123.

“ Each family or every house receives from the local authorities a tablet, called the *door tablet*, on which the names of the inhabitants of the house are to be inscribed. This tablet is changed every year. When these tablets are changed, the names of those who are no longer inhabitants of the house are erased, and new comers are added. On changing one's residence, he is obliged to give notice of it to the authorities, that he may be furnished with a tablet. Ten houses compose what is called a *Pchai*, under the inspection of a *Pchai-cheu* (inspector of ten houses;) ten *Pchais* form a *zsja*, over which a *zsjatschan* presides; ten *zsja* form a *bao*, with a chief called *baotschan*. The Chinese living out of the empire have the same organization.

“ These different functionaries are chosen from among the people for a definite time. They must be heads of families, and know how to read and write. It is their duty to watch over the morality of the people of their district; that is, they must see that no one gains his living by unlawful means, and make reports respecting suspected persons. These officers have the same duties in the cities and in the villages; they are employed every year to prepare a roll of the population. They must enter on this roll all the inhabitants of a place, without distinction, provided they have a fixed residence, whether they be literary men, merchants, artisans, or soldiers.

“ These rolls are in the first place delivered to the government of the circle, who make use of them to form a general roll of the circle, which they forward to the provincial administration, or that of the district. The latter, in turn, after having done his part of the work, transmits it to the Chancery, where it is made use of for the financial department. The registers of the domiciliated soldiers are transmitted to their respective authorities. The department of finances, after having made from the different rolls the computation of the population, remits the document, which is written on yellow paper, to the Emperor.

“ According to the rolls of 1812, the cultivated land in all the governments and Mandchourie, amounted to 7,915,251 acres.

“ The Mandchoux, and the Mongols, who came with them from Mandchourie, in China, constitute a military body by themselves, divided by banners. Each banner has three divisions, the divisions have several companies, each of which contains 150 men. The Mandchoux

at Peking form 681 companies, the Mongols 204, and the Chinese 266; the Manchoux and the Mongols in the government garrisons are composed of 840 companies, who with the Dachures, the Solans, and the Tunguses, in the Obuntschen, and those mentioned above, make a total of 2,088 companies, composed of 343,200 men, from 16 to 60 years.

"At Peking, there is in each division a chief, two aids, a colonel, and a captain of companies. The Manchoux and the Mongols form the garrison under the command of the heads of the corps.

"Every two years an inscription is made for military service; all males who have reached the age of sixteen are registered in it. It is usual to make two rolls, one of which remains in the Chancery of the division, and the other is transmitted to the department of finance.

"Mongol is divided into parts: the south, north, west, and Chuchonor. The Mongols form the aimaks, the aimaks form the banners commanded by the Tschasaks. The banners are divided into regiments, and the regiments into squadrons. A division or principality is called a banner. Some aimaks are divided into several divisions.

"The Mongols of the south occupy an extent of country the length of the great wall from the frontier of Manchourie to Ordos. They form 24 aimaks, subdivided into 48 banners.

"The Mongols of the north are called Calchas. They inhabit the extent of the country which is at the north of the great wall, from Arguni, towards the west, to the frontiers of Tschangaru, and form four aimaks, subdivided into 86 banners. The Nomadic Mongols, dispersed from Ordos towards the west, belong to different aimaks, and form 34 banners.

"The Mongols of Chuchonor lead a Nomadic life near the lake Chuchonor, and form three aimaks, subdivided into 29 banners.

"The Mongols, who are immediately subject to China, have no Tschasaks, but are subjected to the military chiefs of China. In this number must be included the Tschachares and the Tumotes, who lead a Nomadic life, behind the Kalgan, between the Ordos and Dolonnor.

"Each regiment has six squadrons, and a squadron contains 150 men, 30 of whom do military duty, but the others have nothing to do.

"All the squadrons together are composed of 274,275 men, without counting minors, invalids, and the sick.

"Each banner is commanded by a prince, who has under his orders a lieutenant; each squadron has six under officers; ten tents or families have an inspector. Every three years a census of the population is taken, and all males from the age of 18 to 60 are included in it.

"The Tosolaktschs and the Tschangins are employed in making this census, and transmit the results of their labors to Peking. The princes and officers are made responsible for persons who conceal themselves to prevent being enrolled. If under officers and inspectors are guilty of these concealments they are punished by whipping.

"The Chinese troops are composed of two parts: one, the Mand-

choux, the Mongols, and people from Mandchourie, in China; the other consists only of native Chinese. The first are taken by banners, and are called banner troops, the others have a green standard, and are called *troops of the green standard*. The first are kept in garrison in the most important parts of the empire, the others do duty in the interior. The first comprises 266,000 men.

"There has been nothing published respecting the population of Turkestan and Thibet. In the last named country, there are 3,000 men, regular troops; the number of irregular troops is not known. At Kaschgar, in Turkestan, there are 500 native soldiers. The garrisons of the cities are formed of Chinese, but they are not numerous, and come from the government of Gan Su.

EARLY HISTORY OF RUSSIA.

THE early history of Russia is wrapped in great obscurity, and in great measure, cannot at this day be separated from the absolute fable which surrounds it. The present time, however, is one in which a great deal of attention is paid in Russia to literature and literary affairs; and, in consequence, whatever information is attainable will probably soon come to light. The following, which is translated from a St. Petersburg journal, [the Northern Bee,] shows that the research of the Russian literati is extending to the examination of the archives of southern and western Europe.

"A very important historical work has just been published in St. Petersburg, by order of the emperor, under the direction of M. de Tourguénief, counsellor of state. This learned antiquarian, who is now in Paris, has been for many years engaged in France, Italy, England, and Germany, in searching in their archives and libraries for documents relative to the intercourse of the Russian sovereigns with the principal states of Europe. The large and remarkable work which is the result of M. de Tourguénief's indefatigable labors, is entitled: *Historica Russiæ monumenta, ex antiquis exterarum gentium archivis et bibliothecis deprompta, ab A. J. Turgenievo, concilior. st. act. et equ.* The first volume, which has just been published in Latin and Russian, contains a great number of letters, bulls, and papers, addressed by the popes to the grand-dukes and czars of Russia. These documents were copied from the secret archives of the Vatican, which were thrown open to M. D. Tourguénief, by the kindness of his holiness the pope.

WORKING UNDER ATMOSPHERIC PRESSURE.

A PARIS journal gives the following account of a method invented by a French engineer for excluding water from wells and pits, where it may be necessary for laying foundations, or other operations, where the expense of pumping would be expensive or impracticable. It is the substance of a memoir recently addressed to the French Academy of Sciences, which, it is stated, has attracted the attention of philosophers and engineers, and even of physiologists.

"This paper contains a description of a new, very ingenious and powerful method of exhausting, or rather of driving back waters, which often present such serious obstacles in boring for wells or mines, and he beside mentions the very singular effects sometimes made upon men by a powerful atmospheric pressure.

"Heretofore, in order to get rid of water, which sometimes pours in abundantly upon this sort of works, it has been customary to employ pumps, set in motion by steam or some other power; but the insufficiency of this method can be imagined when the source of these waters happens to be a neighboring river, above the point where the boring is going on. The river must be dried up, so to speak, in order that the work may be prosecuted.

"In such a case, M. Triger proposes to throw back the water by means of a powerful compression of air in the well itself, which has previously been hermetically sealed. Instead of taking away the water, M. Triger throws it back towards its source, by pressure.

"The undertaking seems bold; but it appears, however, to have been conducted with perfect success, and even without very great difficulties. The idea is a simple one in itself, and the execution of it is altogether practicable. The following are some of the places where M. Triger's operations have been carried on, and some circumstances are related which attended them.

"'From Doue,' he says, '(the department of Maine et Loire,) to Niort, (department of the Lower Loire,) extends a coal region, well known to miners and geologists. In 1811, M. Cordier made it the subject of a memoir; and later, Messrs. Elie de Beaumont, and Dufrenoy have also studied this region, and have traced it on the geological map of France.

"'The thorough study which we made of this territory having demonstrated to us that it was necessary to cross from eighteen to twenty metres of moving sands before reaching the coal region, we were obliged, in order to overcome a similar difficulty, to think of some other methods besides those generally employed in the mines. This difficulty had been considered by all the miners in the country as so entirely insurmountable, that all the portion of the basin which extends over the Loire, though very well known for ages, had remained untouched. Indeed, to attempt by means of ordinary draining to penetrate these sands, the more movable in consequence of their being in direct com-

munication with the waters of the Loire, was nothing less than to endeavor to fix a well in the river; it was to try to drain the river itself. Not being able, then, to draw off the waters, we formed the idea of throwing them back. Success fully crowned our endeavors.'

"The apparatus of M. Triger is composed of a cylinder of plate iron, which he forces into the well. This cylinder, having been hermetically sealed, and provided with valves, air is thrown into it by means of a steam machine, to a pressure of more than three atmospheres; the workmen penetrate afterward into the well by a mechanism analogous to that employed by M. Tabarie, (of Montpellier,) in those beautiful experiments which have been made in Paris, in rooms filled with condensed air for patients with diseases of the lungs. The water thrown back by the pressure of the air leaves the well dry, and gives room for the works to be carried on.

"As applied to boring, the method of M. Triger will undoubtedly offer several useful applications. It is to be regretted that it is only in vague terms that he recommends the use of it to naval engineers, and those employed in bridges and causeways; we do not see, for example, what advantage can be drawn from it in consolidating the bridge of Tours, which is particularly mentioned by M. Triger. It is known that the injuries in the bridge of Tours have been caused by the large hollows which have been formed under the gratings of the piles in the masses of several united piles. How can the iron pipe, so successfully employed in digging a well or mine, serve to introduce lime and stone under the platform of the pile of a bridge, but little below the level of it? The memoir presented to the Academy leaves many doubts in this respect. There are, also, some in regard to the apparatus of compressed air, for great works in masonry, which are built in a river or on the sea. Because it has been found practicable to maintain a pressure of three and a half atmospheres in a narrow iron cylinder introduced into beds of movable sand, it does not follow, that it would be possible to maintain the same pressure in a cylinder sufficiently large to enclose the pile of a bridge, the sluice of a floating basin, &c. We may be allowed to think, until we have more ample explanations, that the invention of M. Triger, which is, however, very curious, will not effect any changes in the methods at present followed, in the very difficult execution of these difficult operations.

"As to the effects observed by the author on the workmen, who were subjected to this strong pressure of the air, and to himself, they are equally vague, and display so much fancy, that it would seem that new experiments on this interesting subject of physiology are still called for."

PUBLIC DEBT OF SPAIN.

THE following statement has been prepared and published by Robert C. Wyllie, Esq. of the London committee of Spanish bondholders, for the information of the bondholders, from documents sent by Don Pedro Surra y Rull, Minister of Finance of Spain. The *real de vellon* is equal to five cents.

No. I. — Table of the whole Debt of Spain up to the 27th October, 1841.

INTERNAL DEBT.

Debt not liquidated.	Debt liquidated.	Total Debt.	Description of debt.	Amount of Yearly interest.
R. de vellon.	R. de vellon.	R. de vellon.		R de vellon.
2,291,893,479	2,721,163,049	5,013,056,528	Without interest.	
257,319,387	649,103,500	936,422,886	5 per ct. paper.	
		260,963,293	Not consolidated.	
		1,524,259,357	Bonds 5 per ct.	76,212,868
		584,263,213	" 4 per ct.	23,370,528
	Capital,	8,318,985,279	Interests,	99,583,396

FOREIGN DEBT.

3,308,593,920	Loan of 1834, and conversion of the old debt, 5 per ct.	169,929,696
278,268,188	Balance of Inscription to the public treasury of France,	16,000,000
60,000,000	Inscriptions at 5 per ct. in payment of English claims,	3,000,000
12,000,000	" at 5 per ct. in pay't. of American claims,	600,000
3,748,862,108	Capital.	Interests, 189,529,696
594,458,460	Deferred debt, } After deducting the bonds belonging to the govern-	
1,454,248,200	Passive, } ment in London.	
44,414,000	Deferred, } Created in Paris in 1832.	
2,093,120,660		

RECAPITULATION OF DEBTS.

Internal debts,	8,318,985,279
Foreign, Active,	3,748,862,108
Foreign, Deferred, and Passive,	2,093,120,660
	14,160,968,047

No. II. — National Properties of Spain applicable to the Extinction of her Debt. Table showing the Sale, Valuation, and Yearly Revenue of the National Properties on hand at the end of May, 1841, of the Ancient Resources of the Sinking Fund, of Estates and Sequestrations, of Mines, and of the Property of the Secular Clergy.

	Valuation for sale.	Yearly revenue.								
National properties,	<table><tr><td>Rural estates,</td><td>390,000,000</td></tr><tr><td>City "</td><td>140,000,000</td></tr><tr><td>" Censos,"</td><td>570,000,000</td></tr><tr><td>Convents, &c.,</td><td>135,000,000</td></tr></table>	Rural estates,	390,000,000	City "	140,000,000	" Censos,"	570,000,000	Convents, &c.,	135,000,000	28,500,000
Rural estates,	390,000,000									
City "	140,000,000									
" Censos,"	570,000,000									
Convents, &c.,	135,000,000									
Ancient resources of the sinking fund,	200,000,000	6,000,000								
Estates vacant and sequestrated,	19,000,000	570,000								
" Ex Infante Don Antonio,	16,000,000	430,000								

Estates of the Infantes Don Carlos, Don Sebastian, his mother, and Duke of Lucca,	}	80,000,000	2,500,000
Mines,			
Properties of secular clergy examined,		500,000,000	26,000,000
These are considered to be worth in all about 2,000,000,000 reales de vellon.*		1,085,000,000	36,000,000
"Censos" and properties omit- ted for want of sufficient data res- pecting them, say 90,000,000.†			
Total,		3,135,000,000	100,000,000
	(Signed)		RAMON DE GUIZABURUAGA.

Madrid, 20th October, 1841.

No. III. — Table showing the Sums in the Paper of the Public Debt, cancelled by the Sales of National Properties, and the redemption of the "Censos," to the end of May, 1841.

Debt without interest,	394,979,824	18
" current,	36,198,386	8
" consolidated at four per cent	54,193,753	2
" " at five " "	360,404,373	30

Total,
(Signed)

745,776,337 24
RAMON DE GUIZABURUAGA.

Madrid, October 20, 1841.

No. IV. — Table showing Debts due on account of the Sales of National Properties to the end of May, 1841.

Value of properties sold to that date,	1,550,041,027	32
Value of instalments paid,	537,426,909	19

Balance,	1,012,614,118	13
Of which, 35,285,007 23 belongs to instalments due,		
and 977,329,110 24 corresponds to instalments due.		

1,012,614,118 13

(Signed)

RAMON DE GUIZABURUAGA.

Madrid, October 20, 1841.

No. V. — Estimate of Paper of the Public Debt likely to be cancelled in 1842.

By sales of national properties,	260,000,000
Redemption of "censos,"	25,000,000

285,000,000

(Signed)

RAMON DE GUIZABURUAGA.

Madrid, October 20, 1841.

ROBERT C. WYLLIE, Member of the Spanish Committee.

*† Besides the 2,090,000,000 reales remaining still to be added, when exact particulars are ascertained, it is to be observed that no mention is made of the national properties in the colonies, which are considered to be of great value. From the result of what sales have already been effected, I consider it fair to believe that these 3,135,000,000 worth of properties will fetch by sale at least double, or say 6,270,000,000, a value which will absorb an immense mass of paper at the present reduced price of Spanish bonds of all denominations.

January 27, 1842.

ROBERT C. WYLLIE, Member of the Spanish Committee.

STATISTICS OF EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES.

AMONG the various methods by which the Registrar-General has endeavored to turn the records deposited in his office to useful account in illustrating the condition of the people, the practicability seems also to have occurred to him of deducing from the marriage registers a criterion of the state of education, so far as regards the ability to write, among the adult population throughout England and Wales. Every register of marriages being signed by the parties married, those who are able writing their names, and those who are unable, or who write very imperfectly, making their marks, it appeared to the Registrar-General that an enumeration of the instances in which the parties married have signed by a mark, instead of writing their names, would serve to indicate the proportion among them who either could not write at all, or write very imperfectly. And in his second annual report a table is given as the result of such an enumeration, exhibiting the proportion per cent. in the metropolis, in each English county, and in North and South Wales, of persons married in the year ending June 30, 1839, who had used marks.

From this table it appeared, that in fifteen of the English counties, namely, Berkshire, Hertfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Huntingdonshire, Bedfordshire, Cambridgeshire, Essex, Suffolk, Norfolk, Wiltshire, Shropshire, Worcestershire, Staffordshire, Lancashire, and Monmouthshire, and in North and South Wales, more than 40 per cent. of the men were unable to write their names; and that in the West Riding of Yorkshire, in Wales, and in 19 of the English counties, more than half the women were similarly deficient in this primary element of education. It also appeared, that in the whole of England and Wales, out of 121,083 marriages, there were 40,587 men and 58,959 women who could not write.

It was further observed, that the education of the men in respect to the ability to write was superior to that of the women, the proportions per cent. of those who were deficient being for males 33, and for females 49, in the whole kingdom; and a superiority, greater or less, was maintained by the men throughout every county.

This return also indicated a decided superiority with regard to the ability to write in the metropolis, as compared with the rest of England and Wales, and, next to the metropolis, in the north of England, including the counties of Durham, Northumberland, Cumberland, and Westmoreland. On the other hand, the most marked deficiency was in Lancashire, Bedfordshire, Monmouthshire, and Wales; in Lancashire the proportion who had signed with their marks was for men 43, and for females 65, per cent.; in Bedfordshire, for men 55, and for women 66 per cent.; in Monmouthshire, 54 for men, and 67 per cent. for women; and in Wales, for men 46 1-2, and for women 70, per cent. In the metropolis such proportion was only 12 per cent. for men, and 24 for women; and in the northern counties, for men 21, and for women, 42 per cent.

The Registrar-General put forward these calculations in the first instance with evident and necessary caution, remarking that it was not to be hastily assumed upon the evidence afforded by the returns of a single year, that the inhabitants of any particular county or district were less educated than their neighbors; and that it was requisite that this experiment should be oftentimes repeated, and attended with similar results, before any such inference can be drawn with safety. "It must also," he observed, "be remembered, that although a fair average is thus afforded, the portion of the whole population exhibited in the yearly returns of marriages is small;" and such portion whose signatures appear on the marriage registers of a single year is sufficiently small to be easily affected by accidental circumstances. At the same time this criterion is free from the objection of selection, including every class and condition and every age, except children and very old persons, and it is almost impossible that the same person should have signed twice in the same year.

In the last annual report of the Registrar-General, just published, a similar calculation is contained, showing the proportion per cent. of the persons married in the year ended June, 1840, who signed with their marks, and the result is strikingly coincident in every respect with that of the preceding year, and such as to induce the belief that the evidence contained in the marriage registers on this point will furnish a safe and valuable criterion of the state of education, (at least elementary education,) among the adult population, by comparison with preceding years, to indicate its progress or retrogression.

It has been calculated in the last report, (which embraces the year ending June, 1840,) that in 13 English counties, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, and in Wales, the same fact existed with respect to half the women." It also appears, that in the whole of England and Wales, out of 124,329 couples married, there were 41,812 men, and 62,523 women, who it is presumed either could not write, or wrote very imperfectly.

The Registrar-General observes, that "if the table for the year ending June 30, 1840, had shown results differing widely from those of the preceding year, it might reasonably have been suspected that such returns were not likely to become valuable and safe criterions of the comparative state of education, that they are drawn from too small a portion of the whole population, and are too much influenced by accident. Such, however, is not the case." A comparison of the table given in the second report with that in the third, shows a remarkably close correspondence in the results, not only for the whole kingdom, but in the metropolis, and in every considerable group of counties. In the metropolis, indeed, and in two out of the ten divisions of counties, the mean proportion is precisely similar, in six others there is only a difference of one, in another the difference is two, and in the remaining one it amounts to three.

In conclusion, it may be necessary to observe, that this criterion of the comparative state of education as respects the ability to write, can be

only applicable to the past, that is, to such as existed 10 and 20 years ago, and can throw no light upon the amount and nature of the education now afforded.

MODEL PRISON, NEAR LONDON.

ON the occasion of the late visit of the King of Prussia to England, among the objects which attracted his curiosity, was the new Model Prison, in Copenhagen Fields, near London. The following account of his visit, from a London journal, will serve to give some idea of the peculiar features of this interesting establishment: "Major Jebb and the Reverend Whitworth Russell, the general inspectors of prisons in England and Wales, Mr. Grissell, the contractor for building the gaol, together with Mr. Laurie, the intelligent superintendent of the works, and other gentlemen connected with the establishment, were in attendance at an early hour to receive his Majesty. The illustrious visitor and suite arrived about half-past one o'clock in two of the royal carriages, and alighted at the principal entrance gate of the prison, amidst the cheers of the assembled spectators. His Majesty was immediately conducted through the gate, along the entrance corridor into the inspection hall, the galleries of which were filled with elegantly dressed ladies, who, with the other visitors, warmly greeted the King, who condescendingly returned the compliment, and gracefully bowed in return. On looking round him, he remarked to Major Jebb, 'What an extraordinary place this London is! I seem to have got into quite a new world!' He appeared much struck with the original construction of the prison. From the inspection hall an entire view of the building is obtained. The four corridors, or wings, which stand in angular directions, and form the body of the prison, meet there as in a common centre. The wings are 189 feet long, 49 feet wide, and three stories high. Each of these stories will contain 126 cells; that is, 63 on each side of the wing, which is divided by a corridor 16 feet wide, running from one end of the building to the other. The illustrious visitors were led from the central hall, along one of the corridors into a cell, which the King minutely inspected. This cell, which was a counterpart of all the rest, was 13 feet long, 7 wide, and 9 high. It was lighted by a small window near the top, and fitted up with a wash-hand basin, a water closet, and a hammock, which can be slung in a manner similar to those on board ships of war. His Majesty seemed particularly pleased with the apparatus for warming and maintaining a free circulation of air in each cell. In answer to some inquiries as to the probable effect of the separate system on the minds of the prisoners, it was stated that it is intended to keep them constantly occupied, either with work, books, or exercise. His Majesty was then conducted to the refractory cells, but passed them, as it was understood

he was pressed for time, and went into the exercising yards, which consist of five distinct plots of ground, the arrangement of which is very curious, quite original, and so contrived as to carry out the great feature of the system, namely, that of the absolute separation of the prisoners at all times. There is a separate yard for each prisoner, and it is intended to conduct them thither hooded or masked, and they are so contrived, that although a hundred persons may be taking exercise at the same time, they are as effectually separated as regards seeing and hearing as though they were many miles apart. The boundary walls of the exercising yards are so contrived, that every twenty-six of them radiate towards a common centre, where a keeper will be stationed, who from this situation has the ready means of watching twenty-six prisoners almost simultaneously, and entirely unobserved by them. All this was explained to his Majesty, who appeared deeply interested; but from the confined nature of the place, and the number of attendants, we were unable to catch the nature of his observations. The King was then conducted to the chapel, which is still in an unfinished state; but a number of specimen pews had been erected, to show how it is intended to keep the prisoners apart, even during the hours of divine service. The chapel, when completed, will accommodate 250 prisoners, or one-half of the entire number the gaol will contain. The clergyman and the officers will be all visible to the prisoners, but they will be unable to see each other. Mr. Grissell explained to the Royal visiter the object in view, and showed how it was intended to be carried into effect. His Majesty said it was certainly very ingenious.

After thanking the gentlemen who had conducted him over the building for their attention, his Majesty and suite took their departure amidst the cheers of the assembled spectators, and proceeded towards Newgate.

CHRONOLOGY.

FOREIGN.

CHINA. After the capture of Amoy, the British expedition proceeded to the recapture of Chusan, which had been abandoned by them the preceding year. It had been fortified in the mean time with immense labor, by the erection of walls of great strength. On the 1st of October, the troops were landed, in two columns, one column at a time. At half-past ten in the morning, the first column, 1,500 strong, effected a landing under a heavy fire of gingalls and matchlocks from the heights, and proceeded, under cover of a smart fire from the ships and the British battery, to attack the Chinese on a hill, where they carried every thing before them, although the Chinese made a more resolute stand than had been done in any previous encounter. The joss-house battery was soon silenced. Although the second column was landed as soon as the boats could return for it, the Chinese abandoned the western end of their sea-defences before it could be got on shore, and the troops of the first column entered the batteries and took possession of the joss-house hill. The steamboats moved into the inner harbor; the troops rapidly advanced on the city; the walls were escalated without opposition, and by two o'clock in the afternoon the British colors were flying in every direction. The 36 new and well-cast guns were taken in the batteries, and a considerable Government store of rice was found in the city. On the British side, one ensign, one private soldier, and one seaman were killed, and twenty-four private soldiers and two sailors were wounded. In a circular to British subjects in China, dated the 2d October, Sir Henry Pottinger says:

"Arrangements will be immediately made for establishing a provisional government; and her Majesty's Plenipotentiary deems it advisable, after what has already happened, to intimate to her Majesty's subjects and all others, that under no circumstances will Tinghae and its dependencies be restored to the Chinese Government until the whole of the demands of England

are not only complied with but carried into full effect."

On the 7th, the troops reëmbarked, and the squadron regained the anchorage off Just-in-the-way. And General Gough and Admiral Parker, accompanied by Sir Henry, proceeded to reconnoitre Chinhae.

"The city of Chinhae," says Sir William Parker, "which is enclosed by a wall thirty-seven feet in thickness and twenty-two feet high, with an embrasured parapet of four feet high, and nearly two miles in circumference, is situated at the foot of a very commanding peninsular height, which forms the entrance of the Tahee (or Ninpo) river on its left or north bank. On the summit is the citadel, which, from its strong position, is considered the key to Chinhae, and the large and opulent city of Ningpo, about fifteen miles up the river; and it is so important as a military post, that I trust I may be excused for attempting to describe it. It stands about two hundred and fifty feet above the sea, and is encircled also by a strong wall, with very substantial iron plated gates at the east and west ends. The north and south sides of the height are exceeding steep; the former accessible only from the sea, by a narrow winding path from the rocks at its base, the south side and eastern end being nearly precipitous.

"The main body of the Chinese forces were posted on the right bank of the river, in fortified encampments, on very commanding and steep hills; field-works and intrenchments, being thrown up in every advantageous position, with twenty-three guns and innumerable gingalls mounted in them to impede the advance of the troops. The principal landing place on this side is within a considerable creek, close to the south entrance of the river; and across this creek we found a row of piles driven."

The attack on the citadel and city was assigned to the naval branch of the force; and on the evening of the 9th all the vessels were in position. The troops were landed on the right bank at an early hour on the morning of the 10th, in two col-

umns; one, 500 strong, at the mouth of the creek, the other, about 1,000 strong, some 1,300 yards below it. Every man was safely landed by half-past nine; and by eleven the Chinese troops were fleeing in all directions. At a quarter past eleven the walls of the city were breached by the fire from the ships, and the place was soon after in the possession of the British. The loss of the Chinese is supposed to be very great. Of all the British forces, about five were killed and thirty wounded.

The capture of Ningpo is thus concisely told by Sir Henry:

"The necessary arrangements having been made, and reconnoissances had during the 11th and 12th instants, the squadron named below, carrying the troops, marines, and extra seamen from the ships left behind, moved on the 13th up the river to Ningpo, which was found undefended, the Chinese soldiers having positively refused to face our troops again; in consequence of which, the civil mandarins and all the military officers fled from the city about two hours before the squadron reached it. The city was, therefore, peaceably occupied by the troops under his Excellency Sir Hugh Gough, K. C. B., and the ships moored in the river within one hundred yards of the wall."

The Chinese officers left behind them about \$60,000 in the public treasury. Ningpo is the chief city of a prefecture of the same name, and is a fine specimen of Chinese cities. Its streets are comparatively wide, and it abounds in arches, chiefly of the Ming dynasty, affording some beautiful specimens of ornaments deeply cut in granite. Many of the inhabitants had written over the doors of their houses "*submissive people*." Captain Anstruther, who had been imprisoned at Ningpo, took up his head-quarters at his old prison, but now surrounded by his artillery, instead of victors and turnkeys.

On the 20th and 21st of October, the steamers *Nemesis* and *Phlegethon* moved up the river about 40 miles, westward to Yuvaou, without opposition. This is the chief city of a district of the same name. The scenery along the river is described by those who visited it as being most beautiful. Accounts from the expedition to October 25 do not announce any further enterprise, or disclose the plans of the commanders for the future. Their forces were divided between Amoy, Chusan, Chinhae, and Ningpo, with from 500 to 700 men each, the greater number at

Ningpo. They were, of course, not strong enough for any important enterprise. At the latest dates, it was not understood that any overtures had been made from the provincial or imperial governments, and it was a matter of speculation what course would be adopted.

At Canton, notwithstanding the official notifications of the plenipotentiary of an immediate resumption of hostilities, in this province, in the event of any warlike preparations being made, the Chinese are again actively engaged in preparing for defence; large fortifications of granite are being built on the banks of the river below Canton, and where a frigate could pass last spring an artificial bar of stone has been constructed at an immense expense, which effectually impedes the navigation, except for boats of light draught. Some expectation was entertained at Macao that Sir Henry Pottinger would return there in December, and that another attack would be made upon Canton, and that it would be occupied by British forces. The troops from the other provinces had left the city, and a corps of two or three thousand native militia had been organized. The trade was in the mean time carried on at Canton, both by British and Americans. A new commissioner, appointed by the emperor, had arrived at Canton, named Tih-es-hun-poo, a Mantchou. It was supposed his mission was not a warlike one. The population of Hong Kong was fast increasing. A granite jail had been completed, and a court-house was about to be erected.

Reinforcements of troops were on their way from India, and a considerable additional force has lately sailed from England, which may be expected to arrive early in the summer. The recent reinforcements from England are in the following vessels, viz.: One line-of-battle ship, the *Implacable*, 74, fitting for the flag of Sir Thos. Cochrane; four frigates, the *Cambrian*, 36, Captain H. D. Chads, C. B.; *Thalia*, 44, Captain C. Hope; *North Star*, 28, Capt. Sir J. E. Home; and *Vindictive*, 50, Captain J. T. Nicholas; six sloops-of-war, the *Dido*, 20, Capt. the Hon. H. Keppel; *Hazard*, 18, Commander C. Bell; *Syren*, 16, Commander W. Smith; *Harlequin*, 16, Commander G. F. Hastings; *Wolverine*, 16, Commander J. W. S. Johnson; and *Serpent*, 16, Commander W. Nevill; three troop ships, the *Belleisle*, Capt. J. Kingcome; *Apollo*, Commander C. Frederick; and *Sapphire*, Master Commander G. H. Cole; and one hospital

ship, the Minden, Captain M. Quin. The ships of war carry altogether 334 guns. The majority of them had already sailed, at the date of our last accounts from England. It was understood that the Carrysfort frigate, 26, Captain Lord George Paulett, which had lately been commissioned at Portsmouth, was also to proceed to China. This will make the number of vessels ordered to reinforce the squadron already there sixteen, and the total number of guns 360, exclusive of those on board the troop-ships, which are armed *en flute*. Our latest accounts from China are to November 27, and are received direct from Canton.

LONDON, Jan. 5 Abstract of the net produce of the Revenue of Great Britain, in the years and quarters ended 5th January, 1841 and 1842, showing the increase or decrease under each head thereof.

	Years ended January 5.			
	1841. £	1842. £	Inc. £	Dec. £
Customs,	19,754,340	19,899,585	145,245	
Excise,	12,574,568	12,580,918	6,350	
Stamps,	6,735,902	6,709,446		26,456
Taxes,	3,916,444	4,462,911	536,467	
Post office,	441,000	455,000	14,000	
Crown L'ds,	167,500	162,000		5,500
Miscellaneous,	78,116	91,738	19,622	
Tot. Ord. R.	43,697,864	44,387,598	721,680	31,956
Imprest and other m'ys,	445,338	351,198		91,910
Repay'm'ts,	603,198	510,769		92,429
Total income,	44,746,400	45,232,495	721,680	215,595
Deduct decrease,			215,595	
Increase on the year,			506,085	

Income of the quarter ended Jan. 5, £12,426,169; increase, compared with corresponding quarter of last year, £338,549.

JAN. 7. EMIGRATION. A return, just published, shows that emigration is still proceeding upon a gigantic scale:

Emigrants from the United Kingdom in 1840.

	Eng.	Scot.	Irel.	Total.
To N. American Colonies,	5,305	3,053	23,935	32,293
U. States,	35,309	1,246	4,087	40,642
Other parts of America,	44			44
West Indies,	745	687	159	1,591
The Cape,	315	8		323
Australia and N. Zealand,	14,495	817	538	15,850
	56,213	5,811	23,719	90,743

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We have not the previous returns at hand, but we believe that a larger number of emigrants never left the shores of the British Isles in one year than the above. It is startling to think that 1,800 persons quit the kingdom every week never to return. The natural increase of the people must be about 1,100 per day, of whom emigration carries off 250, leaving 850 to swell the census.

LONDON, Jan 12. ARRIVAL OF THE KING OF PRUSSIA. The King of Prussia, having accepted the invitation of Queen Victoria to officiate as sponsor for her son, the infant Prince of Wales, on his baptism, arrived at Windsor Castle this day. Preparations had been made for his reception with honors due to his rank, and to the friendly feelings which had induced him to make the journey. He arrived at Greenwich in the steamer Firebrand from Ostend, and landed at the stairs of the Hospital, at 30 minutes past 2 o'clock, and was received with every mark of attention by Prince Albert, who was accompanied by Admirals Sir George Cockburn, Sir Robert Stopford, and other distinguished naval officers, the Duke of Wellington, Lord Hill, and other distinguished officers of the army. A corps of the Royal Marines was selected for a guard of honor, and a body of life guards as an escort to the king. The Firebrand was saluted as she passed various points of the river, and the landing of the King was announced by the discharge of guns. He was received with the most cordial congratulations by all present, and with hearty cheers by the great concourse of spectators. He proceeded, with his attendants, to the residence of the Governor of the Hospital, and after partaking an elegant collation, accompanied Prince Albert to Windsor, where he was most cordially received by the Queen, and soon after conducted to the apartments in the Castle prepared for him. His suite consisted of Count Stolberg, Baron Humboldt, General De Neumann, General Natzmer, Mr. Muller, Mr. Myerincck, and Mr. de Branchth.

Jan. 21. Average of Bank Notes which were in circulation in the United Kingdom, during the four weeks preceding Jan. 8, 1842, together with the bullion in the Bank of England.

	Circulation.	Bullion.
Bank of England,	16,293,000	5,629,000
Private Banks in England,	5,378,189	

Joint stock Banks in	
England,	3,042,197
Private & joint stock	
Banks in Scotland,	3,070,075
Bank of Ireland,	3,205,875
Private & joint stock	
Banks in Ireland,	2,515,677
Total,	33,605,013 5,629,000

Jan. 25. The Prince of Wales was baptized, at St. George's Chapel, Windsor, by the Archbishop of Canterbury, who was supported by the Archbishop of York, and the Bishops of Norwich and London. The King of Prussia, the Prince of Saxe Coburg, the Duchess of Kent, and other Royal Duchesses appeared as sponsors for the young Prince. He received the name of ALBERT EDWARD, it being a union of the names of his father, and his maternal grandfather, the late Duke of Kent. The service was performed in presence of a great number of royal and distinguished personages, who, after their return from the chapel, partook of a most splendid banquet at the Castle.

Feb. 3. Parliament assembled, and the session was opened by a speech from the throne by the Queen in person. The addresses of the two houses in reply to the speech were voted in both houses without a division.

Feb. 4. The King of Prussia embarked at Woolwich in the steamer Firebrand, on his return to the continent. During his visit in England, he visited many of the public institutions, and other objects of interest in London and the vicinity, and was everywhere received with great attention, and marks of respect. He accompanied the Queen on the occasion of her going to the House of Lords to deliver her speech on the opening of Parliament, and intended to have been present at a debate in the House of Commons in the evening, but the House had adjourned before the hour which he had named for proceeding thither.

Feb. 14. In the House of Lords, Lord Brougham, pursuant to notice, brought under the consideration of their Lordships the case of the Creole, by moving for copies of any correspondence upon the subject. He had, he said, considered the subject since he had first named the matter in that House, and the result of the consideration was a confirmation of the opinion he had formerly given. He was of opinion, that even for the mere purposes of good neighborhood, there ought to be a law amongst nations, giving the

power to each of surrendering criminals seeking refuge after condemnation in other countries. There was, however, no such law in existence, and no power on the part of this country to comply with any such demand.

The Earl of Aberdeen said that some communications had taken place upon this subject with the Government of America, but he hoped the noble Lord would not press for them, if he informed him of the course which the Government intended to pursue. After receiving all the legal assistance they deemed requisite, the Government was satisfied that, by the law of this country, there was no authority to bring the persons who had escaped in the Creole to trial for mutiny or murder, or even to detain them in custody. Instructions had accordingly been sent out for their liberation, unless it should appear that there was any colonial law, under which they could be brought to trial. He was not, however, aware of the existence of any such law.

Lord Denman said he believed that the whole of Westminster Hall was unanimous that the law of England furnished no means of delivering up the persons who had escaped in the Creole. The noble Lord quoted the opinions of Lord Coke, and, in latter years, of Sir C. Wetherell, to the same effect, and said that it would indeed be desirable if there were an international law giving a power to surrender criminals; but such a law could only rest upon the presumption, that the laws of all nations were reasonable, and he feared the nefarious traffic in slaves would stand very much in the way of any such arrangement.

Lord Campbell said he should not have spoken on the subject, but that an opinion had been attributed to him contrary to that just expressed by the Lord Chief Justice, which opinion he had never given. He was of opinion that the American Government had no power to demand that those men should be given up, and that if such a demand were made, there was no power by the municipal law of England to comply with it.

Lord Cottenham and the Lord Chancellor gave similar opinions, and Lord Brougham said that the same view was likewise taken by Lord Wynford and Lord Abinger. Lord Brougham then withdrew his motion.

Feb. 16. Her Majesty's frigate *War-spire*, having on board Lord Ashburton, Ambassador to the United States, after

having been detained some days at the Isle of Wight by adverse winds, sailed from Yarmouth Roads for New York.

Feb. 17. The debate in the House of Commons on the scheme proposed by Sir Robert Peel, for the amendment of the Corn Laws, closed this morning at 2 o'clock. The principal changes in the law, proposed by him, were to increase the number of markets, at which returns of the prices of grain shall be made, to serve as the basis of the averages which are to govern the rate of duty, and to establish diminished rates of duty, as in the following table:

Whenever the average price of wheat, made up and published in the manner required by law, shall be, for every quarter.

	Proposed Sliding Scale.	Present Sliding Scale.
Under 51s. } duty for } 20s. 6d		36s. 8d.
51s. and under 52s.	19 0	35 8
52s. and under 53s.		34 8
53s. and under 54s.	18 0	33 8
54s. and under 55s.		32 8
55s. and under 56s.	17 0	31 8
56s. and under 57s.	16 0	30 8
57s. and under 58s.	15 0	29 8
58s. and under 59s.	14 0	28 8
59s. and under 60s.	13 0	27 8
60s. and under 61s.	12 0	26 8
61s. and under 62s.	11 0	25 8
62s. and under 63s.	10 0	24 8
63s. and under 64s.	9 0	23 8
64s. and under 65s.	8 0	22 8
65s. and under 66s.	7 0	21 8
66s. and under 67s.		20 8
67s. and under 68s.	6 0	18 8
68s. and under 69s.		16 8
69s. and under 70s.	5 0	13 8
70s. and under 71s.	4 0	10 8
71s. and under 72s.	3 0	6 8
72s. and under 73s.	2 0	2 8
73s. and upwards,	1 0	1 0

Lord John Russell had moved an amendment, expressing a disapprobation of the principle of a sliding scale of duty, and after an able debate, in which the principal members took part, and which was continued through three successive sessions of the House, the question was put on retaining the words proposed to be struck out, and it was decided in the affirmative, yeas 349, nays 226; majority, 123.

BRITISH POST OFFICE. The following statement shows the effect of the intro-

duction of the system of penny postage. The numbers given are in some degree the result of estimate, particularly those for the period before the reduction of the rate.

Number of letters sent through the London general post in the year immediately preceding reduction, viz., that ending 4th December, 1839, (chargeable letters only,)	21,088,000
1840,	49,309,000
1841,	68,671,000

Increase in the last year's letters since 1840,

19,362,000

Increase in the last year's letters since reduction,

47,583,000

Number of letters sent through the London district post, in the year immediately preceding reduction, viz., that ending 4th December, 1839,	13,278,000
1840,	20,306,000
1841,	22,820,000

Increase in the last year's letters since 1840,

2,514,000

Increase in the last year's letters since reduction,

9,542,000

Letters delivered in the United Kingdom, (letters sent out of the United Kingdom, are, of course, excluded from this account,) in the year immediately preceding reduction, viz., that ending December 4, 1830, exclusive of franks, which are estimated at seven millions,

75,469,000

1840,	168,768,000
1841,	196,500,000

Increase in the last year's letters, since 1840,

27,732,000

Increase since reduction,

121,031,000

THE HAGUE, Jan. 10. It appears from an official report, that the population of the kingdom on the 1st of January, 1841, amounted to

2,803,716

The number of births in the year 1840 was

105,698

The number of deaths,

72,636

Excess of births,

33,062

DEBT OF THE KINGDOM OF HOLLAND. An official statement of the national debt of the Netherlands, so often a subject of mere surmise, has been recently published, from which the following extract is taken:

	Capital. Fl.	Yearly divi'd. Fl.
2 1-2 per cent. active stock,	768,858,300	19,221,457 50
2 1-2 per ct. de- ferred stock,	896,398,600	
5 per cent. ac- tive,	203,257,900	10,162,895
4 per ct. treas- ury bills,	9,799,950	391,998
4 1-2 per cent. Amortisation Syndicate,	100,500,000	4,522,500
3 1-2 per cent. Amortisation Syndicate,	25,700,000	899,500
5 per cent. Los Renten (do- mains,)	17,400,000	870,000
4 per ct. securi- ties given.	1,011,000	40,440
4 per cent. life rents,		221,615 30
4 per cent. In- dian Inscrip- tions,	64,000,000	3,200,000
4 1-2 per cent. Indian In- scriptions,	165,000,000	6,600,000
	2,151,925,700	45,950,405 80

To which must be added
the sum which, in conse-
quence of the anticipated
deferred stock conversion
law, must be yearly paid,

1,700,000

So that the whole amount
of the national debt may
be calculated at

47,600,000 80

Of this Belgium has to pay an annual
sum of 5,000,000 florins, but it must be
increased by the Indian loans, the divi-
dends on which, although paid out of the
Indian produce, are guarantied by the
Treasury.

The debt of Holland, in florins, is
2,151,925,700 00, which at 40 cents per
florin, is equal to \$537,981,425, and the
interest is \$47,600,000 florins, which at
40 cents, is \$11,400,000 per annum. The
population of Holland is about 3,500,000
souls; much of this is for keeping of a
large standing army to be prepared for
hostilities against Belgium, during 8 or 9
years that their disputes remained unad-
justed.

THE HAGUE, Feb. 9. Yesterday, the
8th February, a treaty was concluded in
this town for the accession of the Grand

Duchy of Luxemburg to the German Cas-
toms Union. Stipulations have been
made on this occasion, which remove the
inconvenience which had hindered his
Highness the Grand Duke from ratifying
the original treaty concluded on the 8th
of August, 1841. This new convention
is signed on the one part by the Chancel-
lor of the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg,
and on the other by the Prussian Envoy
at the Court of the Netherlands. It was
ratified on the same day by the two sove-
reigns. His Majesty the King of Prus-
sia left the Hague this morning at half-
past nine o'clock to return to his own
dominions. Our Sovereign paid his
Majesty a farewell visit at nine o'clock.
Before his departure his Majesty conferred
the Grand Cross of the Red Eagle on M.
Rochausen and on Baron Huysen van
Kattendyke. General Lusaraz received
the cross of commander, and his Majesty's
aid-de-camp Baron Snonckaert and Lieut-
enant Huysen van Kattendyke that of
Knight of the same order. The grand
cross of the Oaken Crown has been given
to Count von Lottum.

PARIS, Jan. 10. Two incidents con-
nected with the diplomatic relations of the
king have occurred, which are deserving
of notice. In consequence, as was sur-
mised, of want of a cordiality on the part
of the autocrat of Russia towards the
present dynasty of France, Count Pahlen
the Russian ambassador, was a few weeks
before the close of the year, recalled under
some pretext, the real reason being sup-
posed to be, that if present as the oldest
of the ambassadors at the French court,
of the first rank, the duty would devolve
upon him according to usage to make the
complimentary address to the king, in the
name of the diplomatic corps. In conse-
quence of this real or supposed slight, on
the 6th of December, the fête day of the
Emperor Nicholas, M. de Perrier, the
French ambassador, announced in the
morning that he was indisposed, and ac-
cordingly did not make his appearance at
court, although he was seen abroad on the
same day. On the occasion of the cele-
bration of the new year's day, at the Tu-
illeries, neither Mr. De Kisseleff, nor any
other member of the Russian embassy, or
other Russian subject, made his appear-
ance. To remove all apprehension of any
serious consequences from these indica-
tions of coldness between the two sove-
reigns, M. de Boutinief, an eminent Rus-
sian diplomatist, has since arrived at Paris

in the character of Ambassador Extraordinary, and has been received by King Louis Philippe, with marked cordiality. The other incident referred to is likely to lead to a more permanent misunderstanding. The King of the French lately appointed M. de Salvandy to the station of Ambassador at the Court of Spain, and on his arrival at Madrid, a question of etiquette arose, as to the person to whom his letters of credence were to be presented; whether to the Regent of the kingdom, who is Gen. Espartero, or to the Queen in person. The regent claimed it as a prerogative of his station, that he should receive the ambassador, and M. Salvandy, by instructions as it appears from his government, claimed the right of presenting his credentials to the Queen in person, but in presence of the Regent, to whom they might be immediately delivered. The ceremonies of opening the session of the Cortes, on the 26th of Dec. occurred soon after the arrival of M. de Salvandy, and while the matter was in suspense. To avoid the embarrassment of being present when his place could not be clearly defined, M. de Salvandy took the expedient of making a visit to Aranjuez and Toledo. He immediately returned to Madrid, but both parties adhering to their original positions, it was found impracticable to adjust the difference, and the ambassador returned to Paris.

PARIS, JAN. 30. PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN FRANCE. The amount of the expenses of primary instruction in France during 1840 was 14,775,660 francs, of which 9,884,420 francs were for communal schools, and 1,763,823f. for normal schools. The communes contributed 8,617,373 francs towards the total, the departments 4,658,281 francs, and the state 1,600,000 francs.

PARIS, JAN. 31. FRENCH FINANCES. The Minister of France presented to the Chamber of Deputies his Budget for 1843, with an *exposé des motifs*, of which the following is a summary:

Political complication having disappeared, the peace of Europe is insured; nevertheless, the balance between revenue and expenditure cannot be immediately restored. It can be premised, however, in no distant perspective. The Minister then recapitulated the extraordinary charges, which it is requisite to meet by resources independent of past budgets. At the end of the last session these extraordinary charges amounted to 896,000,000 of francs, of which 395,000,000 francs come from the deficits of 1840, '41 and

'42. There are 501,000,000 francs from the credits opened for the execution of public works. The works of both war and peace have been endowed with a credit *en rentes* of 480,000,000. The excess of expenditure over revenue on the three last budgets was reduced, as he had stated, to 395,000,000. And the similar excess in the budget of 1843 would be reduced, at the end of 1842, to 300,000,000.

The Minister says he is following up the operation of the loan. France, after fifty years of revolution, of success, and reverses, has borrowed at an interest of 3f. 91c., whilst Austria negotiates under par its five per cent. metallics, whilst Russia gets an offer of but 87 for a four per cent. loan, and when Holland issues her two-and-a-half per cents. but at 51 and 52. It was demonstrated to him, that with the 150,000,000 borrowed, joined with the issue of treasury bonds and other means, all expenses, now foreseen, might be met for two years to come, without further loan or precaution.

The war budget, including Algeria, demands 295,909,733 francs for an effective of 344,000 men, and 84,288 horses. Of these, 44,000 are for Algeria. A company per battalion being suppressed, 100,000 men more will pass into the reserve of 1843, and a reduction of 13,395 horses will be successively realized. These reductions, with other economy, will produce a diminution of expense of 32,656,892 francs.

The 35,740,000 francs allotted to public works in 1842 will be so employed.

The budget of the navy amounts to 98,763,020 francs, comprising 4,440,000 francs for works and 2,400,000 francs for steam-packet boats. Between the navy budget of 1842, and the present one for 1843, there is a difference of 37,278,598 francs. Reductions are to be realized by a diminution of the effective of ships' crews, and of the number of armed ships, and of colonial fortifications. The establishment of steamboats between Havre and New York not having been realized, no credit is required. The Government will, however, undertake to establish these vessels.

In sums, the estimates of the budget are as follow:

Direct contributions,	406,149,368
Imposts and direct revenues,	722,566,000
Woods and domains,	42,245,110
Divers,	35,145,432

Extraordinary receipts, 75,000,000

Total, 1,284,102,960

This revenue, compared with the sum required, presents a deficit of 27,447,135 francs. This deficit, compared with the last, presents an amelioration of 88,357,799 francs, being 45,928,981 francs, diminution in expenditure, and 42,428,818 francs increase in revenue.

Notwithstanding this new deficit, continues the Minister, it is compensated by the improvement in our financial situation, so that there is no necessity for any change of system. The sentiment of public stability must grow stronger, and public credit will follow its ascendant. In four or five years, our embarrassments will be removed. The sinking fund will be again dispersed, and extensive public works will have been completed, &c.

LISBON, Feb. 14. REVOLUTION IN PORTUGAL. An entire change has taken place in the government, and the Queen has acceded to the reestablishment of Don Pedro's Charter of 1826. It would require a volume to describe the various movements. The following is an enumeration of some of the closing events:

"Within one little week we had three distinct sets of Ministers; we have had the Charter strongly but quietly resisted, the Charter next ferociously assailed, and the Charter lastly triumphantly proclaimed! We have had the old Moderado Government trying to continue its system of palliatives for the suppression of Cabral's revolt, and turned out at five minutes' warning; we have had the ball then placed at Sa da Bandeira's foot, the National Guards called out, the rabble armed, barricades erected in the principal streets, the troops set in motion to meet Cabral in hostile array on his march to Lisbon, and defensive operations commenced at the Lisbon lines; and then the scene was suddenly shifted, the troops were sent home to their quarters, the populace disarmed, the works of defence suspended, the Duke de Terceira called to power *because* he abetted the Oporto revolt, the Charter solemnly subscribed by the Queen, drummed and trumpeted in the streets, hymned in the theatre of San Carlos, and received by the *presque unanimite* of the inhabitants with an ardor of enthusiasm only second to that which was before exhibited at Oporto. All this came to pass, not within a week alone, but within less than half that period. Lisbon has had her 'three days,' like Paris, her

armed *sans-culottes*, and her barricades. Hers have been bloodless, and not quite as 'glorious.' "

LISBON, Feb. 21. Every thing remains quiet in the capital, and there is the appearance of a general acquiescence throughout the kingdom in the change, from the constitution to the charter. The ministry is not definitively arranged. The Duke of Terceira will be at the head, but there is some uncertainty as to part of his colleagues.

DOMESTIC.

BOSTON, March 3. The Legislature of Massachusetts was prorogued by the Governor, at its own request, having acted or refused to act on all the regular business which came before it. There is to be an extra session in September, to divide the State into districts for the choice of members of Congress, in accordance with the apportionment to be made at this session of Congress. The Legislature passed nothing of striking general or permanent interest. An attempt to impose a direct tax, to pay that portion of the funded debt falling due this year, excited more attention than any other subject which came before the two Houses. It failed eventually, however, after having prevailed in some of the preliminary stages by a small majority, and the sum requisite will be provided for by a loan from the banks of the State.

LOCKPORT, N. Y. March. 7. James Sheridan Hogan, supposed to be one of the persons engaged in the attack by the British forces on the steamboat *Caroline*, Dec. 26, 1837, which has excited so much interest from its bearing on the mutual rights of Great Britain and the United States, passed through this place in returning from a visit in New York, was recognized, arrested, and committed for examination. Before the examination took place, however, he was taken out of the hands of the magistrate and carried before Judge Ransom, and a misnomer having been proved in the warrant for arrest, which read James *Sheldon* Hogan, he was at once liberated and crossed the lines.

BOSTON, March 11. Public anxiety, which had been much excited by the apprehension of the loss of the *Caledonia*, British steam-packet, due at this port in the latter part of February, was greatly relieved by the arrival of the steam-ship *Unicorn* with her mails. The *Caledonia*

sailed from Liverpool on her regular day, the 4th of February, and for several successive days encountered a series of tremendous gales. She weathered them successfully, however, till on the 11th, when she had made 1,000 miles to the westward, in a very violent storm her rudder-post gave way, and as it was impossible to repair it in such a way as to secure the safety of the ship, it was considered prudent to put back to Liverpool. The vessel arrived at Liverpool on the 19th. On the 21st, the Acadia steam-packet sailed with her mails, and arrived in Halifax on the evening of the 8th of March, meeting as she entered the harbor the Unicorn, which had just left port with the American mails of March, on her way to Europe. Both vessels proceeded to Halifax, their mails were exchanged, and the Acadia was immediately prepared for her return, which she began on the 11th of the month.

RHODE ISLAND, March 23. The election for an expression of opinion with regard to the State constitution, [Mon. Chr. Vol. III. p. 92.] closed. The constitution was rejected by a majority of 676 votes.

RESUMPTION OF SPECIE PAYMENTS. Through the winter sessions of the legislatures of the several States, the financial state of the country, and the condition of the banks particularly, have excited much attention, and been the ground of much legislation. We reserve the details of such action for a future occasion.

On the 18th of March, the banks of the city of Philadelphia, by mutual agreement, resumed specie payments. There was no alarming run upon them, and from appearances the resumption will probably be permanent.

UNITED STATES CONGRESS.

To our latest dates, the 20th of March, Congress has done little.

The Senate has been engaged for a considerable part of the month in discussions on Mr. Clay's resolutions proposing amendments to the constitution, and those relating to the revenues and expenses of the country, [Mon. Chron. Vol. III. p. 93.] The discussion on the latter series began on the 1st of the month, introduced by an elaborate speech by Mr. Clay. He justified their introduction, as the best means to test the sense of the Senate before the preparation of such bills as would be necessary to carry out their provisions. The sketch

of the objects of the resolutions in our last number, renders any repetition of them unnecessary. Mr. Clay argued at length to show that \$22,000,000 was a proper amount for the annual national expenditure, and that retrenchments might be made on the executive estimates, which should reduce the expenses to that sum. Adding \$4,000,000 for a reserved fund, and payment of national debt, he had a sum of about 26,000,000 to be raised by the duties on imports; for he protested against the use of the proceeds of the public lands for general expenses, and proposed a repeal of a clause in the distribution act, which suspended the operation of that act on an increase of duties above 20 per cent. [Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 384.]

Mr. Clay stated his estimate of the average amount of imports into the country to be about \$119,000,000; this estimate is somewhat curious, as being based on the returns of the value of exports, with an addition of 15 per cent. for expenses and profits; thus made, it coincides very nearly with the estimate of the Secretary of the Treasury, which is framed from the returns of imports. From this amount, \$18,000,000 of free articles must be deducted, and on the remaining \$91,000,000 the requisite duties were to be laid; for Mr. Clay considered direct or internal taxation entirely out of the question.

A higher rate of duty than twenty per cent. thus appeared obviously necessary. Thirty per cent. would furnish \$25,700,000, and Mr. Clay therefore proposed thirty per cent. as the average of the new rates of duty, deducting from it in some instances where deduction should be necessary to prevent smuggling, and making up for the deduction by additional duties on a few such articles as needed protection.

Through all his estimates, Mr. Clay relied on the practicability of a home valuation, as provided for in the compromise act, and laid great stress on its importance. He declared throughout, that the compromise bill contained no clause which prohibited an increase of duties above twenty per cent., and sustained his position by reference to the bill. He also supported with zeal his resolutions providing for close retrenchment in government expenses, as such retrenchment would prove necessary for the low estimate which he had made of the annual amount. We have thought best to state the results

of his arguments, as preparatory to the general discussion of the tariff question.

Mr. Clay's argument necessarily involved the supposition that the expenditures of Mr. Van Buren's administration, which he estimated as very much above his minimum of necessary expense, had been extravagant. Mr. Wright of New York immediately undertook the defence of that administration. He argued that Mr. Clay had not given sufficient weight to the extra expenses which it had been called to bear, and by calculations which he adduced he argued that that administration had not left the deficit in the treasury which had been charged to it. He presented a series of amendments to Mr. Clay's resolutions, embodying his views, and on the questions, as thus presented, long and elaborate discussions arose, in which several Senators of both parties partook. The Senate had taken no action on the resolutions at our latest dates.

Mr. Clay's exertions with regard to these resolutions will be the last he will make, at present at least, on the floor of Congress. On the 10th of February he transmitted to the Governor of Kentucky his resignation of his seat in the Senate after the 1st of April, to take effect from the 31st of March, and Mr. John J. Crittenden has been chosen to succeed him.

The discussions in the House were no less protracted than those in the Senate; and the subject on which that body was engaged was of much less general interest. Late in the month of February, the Committee on Retrenchment reported a series of resolutions providing for the reduction of the expenses of the House in several details, amounting in all to nearly \$100,000. The consideration of these resolutions occupied a part of almost every session of the House for some weeks. Several of them were adopted. At the same time the General Appropriation Bill was under discussion in Committee of the Whole, and its progress was extremely slow, being interrupted by constant political discussions, and motions for reduction of salaries and limitations of expenditure, similar to those suggested by the Retrenchment Committee.

Meanwhile the Treasury was in want of the funds, with which to meet the regular demands made upon it. On the 8th of March the President transmitted a Message to the House of Representatives, accompanied by a statement from the Secretary of the Treasury, from which it ap-

peared, that if the ordinary expenses of the several departments were not suspended, there would be a deficit on the 1st of July of about \$3,000,000. The Secretary suggested, as the only means of providing immediately for this deficit, and for the Treasury Notes constantly falling due, an increase of the funded debt already authorized, with an extension of the time for which it can be contracted, and the pledge of some definite source of revenue for its payment. The changes hoped for in the tariff of duties increasing the annual amount of revenue, could not come into operation in time to be a relief to the embarrassments of the Government.

In accordance with these suggestions, the Committee on Ways and Means introduced a bill adding \$5,000,000 to the funded debt, extending its time to twenty years, and pledging the revenue from customs for its redemption. This bill excited a long and rambling discussion in the House, which had not concluded at our latest dates.

No definite action of the Executive or legislative bodies transpired with reference to our foreign relations. On the 21st of February, however, in reply to a call from the Senate for information, the Executive transmitted to that body a copy of the instructions sent to Mr. Everett, our Minister in England, in regard to the case of the *Creole*. [Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 560] Mr. Webster, in these instructions, maintains, that as the vessel, while lawfully proceeding from port to port in the United States, had been forcibly carried into Nassau, by a mutiny of a part of the slaves, who rose upon the master and crew and subdued them, having murdered one man, it was the duty of the authorities at Nassau, a friendly port, to assist the American consul to put an end to the captivity of the master and crew, by restoring to them the control of the vessel, and enabling them to resume their voyage, and to take the mutineers to their own country, to answer for their crimes before the proper tribunal; and also, that the authorities of Nassau in interfering, and effecting the landing of the other slaves, who had taken no part in the mutiny, and in bringing the vessel to Nassau, went out of the line of their duty as officers of a friendly power. On these grounds Mr. Webster instructs the minister to demand some reparation from the English Government.

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APRIL, 1842.

ARTICLE V.

RAILROADS IN FRANCE.

SINCE the publication of our late article on the subject of the railroads in France, and of those which are projected, the Minister of Public Works, M. Teste, has brought into the Chamber of Deputies the *projet* of a law, for undertaking a system of railroads in conformity with the principle there briefly stated. As it is a plan novel in its character, and one which, if carried into execution, will introduce a system of public improvements of great national importance, we here give the *projet* in extenso :

" CHAPTER 1. — Art. 1. There shall be established a system of railroads leaving Paris, and leading to the frontier of Belgium, by Lille and Valenciennes, — to England, by a point of the coast of the Channel, which shall be determined hereafter, — to the frontier of Germany, by Strasburg, — to the Mediterranean, by Lyons, Marseilles, and Cette, — to the Ocean, by Bordeaux and Nantes.

" Art. 2. The execution of the grand lines of railway enumerated in the preceding article, shall be performed by the coopération of the state, of the departments, and communes interested in them, and of private industry, in the proportions and forms to be hereafter resolved upon.

" Art. 3. Independently of the voluntary grants which may be offered by localities, and accepted by the government, the indemnity for lands and buildings, the occupation of which may be necessary for the establishment of railways and their dependencies, shall be paid to the amount of two-thirds by the departments and communes interested in

them. In each department through which a railroad shall pass, the council-general shall determine the amount to be chargeable upon the departmental funds; it shall designate the communes to be called upon for payment of the surplus of the two-thirds, and fix the contingent of each according to its interests and its financial resources.

"Art. 4. The remaining third of the indemnity, and the excavations and banking, and the works of art, shall be paid by the funds of the state.

"Art. 5. The rails, including the sand, the *matériel*, the expenses of working the line, and the expense of keeping up and repairing the roads, its dependencies, and its *matériel*, shall be at the charge of the companies, to which the working of the railway shall be let on lease. This lease shall be granted upon a *cahier des charges*, (clauses and conditions,) which shall fix the duration of the period and the tariff of fares. The *cahiers des charges* must be approved of by royal ordonnance.

"Art. 6. At the expiration of the lease, the value of the rails and of the *matériel* (carriages, locomotives, &c.) shall be reimbursed, according to appraisal, to the company, by that which shall succeed it.

"Art. 7. For the regulation of the indemnities for lands, and buildings, the formalities prescribed by Articles 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, and 28, of the law of the 3d of May, 1841, shall be dispensed with. The estimation of the lands and buildings, comprised in the judgment of expropriation, shall be immediately referred to a jury. Immediately after the decision of the jury, the government shall be put into possession of the lands and buildings which are expropriated, on payment of the third of the amount of the indemnity to be borne by the state.

"Art. 8. The measures which may be necessary to conciliate the working of the railways with the execution of the laws and regulations of customs, shall be regulated by royal ordonnance.

"Art. 9. The measures and arrangements necessary for the good regulation, safety, use, and preservation of the railways and their dependencies, shall be fixed by the government.

"CHAPTER 2. — Art. 10. A sum of forty-three millions is appropriated to the establishment of the railway from Paris to Lille and Valenciennes, by Amiens, Arras, and Douai.

"Art. 11. — A sum of forty-one millions is appropriated to the portions of the railway from Paris to the Mediterranean, comprised, one between Dijon and Châlons, the other between Marseilles, Avignon, and Beaucaire.

"Art. 12. A sum of seventeen millions is appropriated to the establishment of the portion of the railway from Paris to the Ocean, comprised between Orleans and Tours.

"Art. 13. A sum of fifteen hundred thousand francs is appropriated to the completion of the plans and surveys of the great lines of railways, defined by article 1, of the present law.

"Art. 14. On the appropriations mentioned in the preceding arti-

cles, amounting together to one hundred and two millions five hundred thousand francs, there is opened to the Minister of Public Works on the estimates of the year 1842, a credit of eleven millions, namely : for the railroad from Paris to the Belgian frontier, four millions ; for the portions of the railroad from Paris to the Mediterranean, between Dijon and Châlons, and between Marseilles, Avignon, and Beaucaire, four millions ; for the portion of the railway from Paris to the Ocean between Orleans and Tours, two millions ; for the continuation of the plans and surveys, one million. And upon the estimates of 1843 a credit of twenty-two millions five hundred thousand francs, viz. : Paris to the Belgian frontier, eight millions ; Paris to the Mediterranean, eight millions ; Paris to the Ocean, six millions ; and for the continuation of the surveys and plans, five hundred thousand francs. Total for 1842 and 1843, 22,500,000 francs.

"CHAPTER 3. WAYS AND MEANS. — Art. 15. The portion of the expenditure authorized by the present law, which is to fall upon the state, shall be provided for provisionally out of the resources of the floating debt ; the advances of the treasury shall be definitively covered by the consolidation of the funds of reserve of the sinking fund, which may be disposable after the extinction of the deficits of the budget of 1840, 1841, and 1842.

"CHAPTER 4. — Art. 16. Every year there shall be rendered to the Chamber, by the Minister of Public Works, a special account of the works executed by virtue of the present law."

This *projet*, which is not yet adopted by the legislative chambers, proposes for future execution the great lines of railroad described in our former article, and it recommends a plan of building and carrying on these works, by the joint action of the general government, the local authorities, and private companies. The Minister, in his *exposé des motifs*, proceeded to describe more in detail the portions of the several works proposed to be first undertaken, and to give some estimates of the cost. The whole extent of the lines of railway proposed is about 2,350 kilometres, or 1,460 miles, and the cost of the portion of the work proposed to be undertaken by the state, is estimated at an average of 150,000 francs per kilometre, or \$46,000 a mile.

The railroad from Paris to the Belgian frontier, and on the shortest route to England, the Minister remarks, was always considered of the greatest importance. To create easy and rapid relations between Paris, Brussels, and London, he considered important not merely to the commercial, but to the political interests of the three kingdoms. Two principal routes had been indicated, one by way of Amiens, and the other by St. Quentin. The population of each of these towns, claimed the preference in its own favor. The government had given the preference to that of Amiens. It is four leagues shorter than the

other ; it avoids 1,600 metres of tunnelling, and it is at present destitute of the advantage which the other possesses of water-communication, and will consequently be more decidedly benefited by the new improvement. The population on the line of Amiens is also more numerous. In making this preference, they propose also to favor the establishment of a branch leading to Compeigne.

The line adopted by the government takes its departure from Paris at a place between the barrier St. Denis, and the barrier Poisonnière, proceeds thence to St. Denis, passes the valley of Montmorency, to the hill of Pierrelaye, reaches the river Oise near Pontoise, and pursues the course of the river to Creil ; it thence pursues the valleys of the Bresche and the Avre, to the summit which separates the valley of the Oise from that of the Somme, and reaches the Somme near Amiens, following the valley of the Avre. Thence the route proceeds to Arras, and thence upon Douai, following the valley of the Scarpe, and from Douai it divides into two branches, one of which proceeds towards Lille, and the other upon Valenciennes. The length of the route from Paris to Creil is 40 3-4 miles ; thence to Amiens, 48 miles ; and thence to Lille, 70 7-8 miles. From Douai to Valenciennes is 19 miles, making a whole length of railway, including the branches, of 178 3-4 miles. The maximum grade does not exceed an ascent of 3-1000th parts, or 15 3-6 feet per mile. The estimate of 150,000 francs the kilometre is considered rather above than below the actual cost, of the part which it is proposed shall be done at the charge of the state, so that the cost of execution from Paris to Lille and Valenciennes will not exceed 43,000,000.

The next portion of railway proposed to be immediately undertaken, extends from Orleans to Tours. This route is destined to make a part of the route from Paris to Bordeaux, and also to Nantes. The railroad from Paris to Orleans is already in the progress of construction by a private company. The preoccupation of this route, to a distance of 60 leagues from the capital, the Minister remarks, will be of immense advantage for the relations of Paris with the country, at the west and southwest, as a part of the grand chain of communication both with Bordeaux and with Nantes. It is expected that the company which has undertaken the construction of the railroad from Paris to Orleans, will bring that work to a completion in about a year.

The route from Orleans pursues the valley of the Loire, the greater part of the way on the right bank, passing through the towns of Mer, and Blois ; but before reaching Tours, it crosses the river near Amboise, and enters Tours at the point where the royal road to Bordeaux leaves the town. The distance is 70 3-4 miles, and the maximum grade is 13 feet in a mile. The estimated charge to the

government is 17,000,000 francs. The sums demanded for 1842 will be 3,000,000, and for 1843, 5,000,000.

One of the lines, which will necessarily occupy the first rank in the system of railroads of France, is that from Paris to Lyons. The Minister of Public Works, in stating the motives for the construction of this line, remarks that Lyons is the second town in the kingdom, not only in its population, but in the extent of its industry; the products of which are exported to every part of the civilized world, and form especially one of the most considerable objects of French commerce with the United States. The railroad will place Lyons within 12 or 15 hours' travel from Paris, and 18 or 20 hours' from the sea, and will thus be one of the most powerful means of multiplying the transactions of that port with foreign nations.

There are two routes between Paris and Lyons: one by way of Burgundy, and the other by the valley of the Loire. But the Minister gives a preference for the railroad to the former, not only on account of the less formidable physical obstacles to be overcome, but on account of the greater population, who will derive an immediate benefit from it. In making a selection of the route by Burgundy, there is still some difficulty of choice in the precise route; but all the lines unite at Dijon. From that point, therefore, it will be safe to begin with the construction of the railroad, and to carry it thence to Chalons. From the latter place there is a very active steam navigation connecting it with Lyons. It is, therefore, proposed to begin the construction of the railroad on this section from Dijon to Chalons, a distance of 45 miles. The expense proposed to be defrayed by the state, is estimated at 11,000,000 francs, of which 1,150,000 will be required in 1842, and 3,000,000 in 1843.

A part of the projected system of works, which is considered among the most useful, is one designed to unite Lyons with a port on the Mediterranean. The port of Marseilles, from its admirable position, commands a great part of the commerce of the Levant, destined not only for France, but for Switzerland and Northern Germany. The port of Cette participates in these advantages. To prevent these ports from being deprived of these advantages, it is necessary to take some measures to enable them to meet the competition with other channels of trade. Several foreign nations are desirous of rivalling France in this trade. In particular Austria, by the works which she is constructing, for uniting the centre of the empire with the Mediterranean, will cut off from these ports a great part of this trade, unless something is done to retain it. Not less than 250,000 to 300,000 tons of merchandise and 300,000 passengers, are now annually transported between Marseilles and Lyons. This traffic will be greatly extended, when the passage shall be reduced from 36 or 40 hours to

10. It is thought that the trade of Marseilles, from the advantages of its position, is susceptible of a great extension by the aid of an improved communication with the interior, including the extension of the railroad, by the proposed branch from Dijon to Strasburgh.

Four different lines have been surveyed between Marseilles and Avignon and Beaucaire, on the Rhine, whence the navigation is good for steamboats to Lyons, and even to Chalons. The shortest of these lines, running in nearly a direct course from Marseilles to Avignon, is that to which the council, on examination of the several surveys, have given the preference, on the ground of the saving of distance, although liable to the objection of not passing through the towns of Arles and Beaucaire. The length of this route is 96 1-2 kilometres, or 60 miles; and the estimated charge, for the part of the work to be undertaken by the state, is 30,000,000 francs, of which they propose that 2,500,000 shall be appropriated in 1842, and 5,000,000 in 1843. It will be perceived, that this estimate is more than double, according to distance, that of the other lines. This greater estimate arises from the difficulty of the country, and particularly the extent of the tunnelling. There will be 10 tunnels on the proposed route, measuring in all 10,213 metres, or 6 1-3 miles. One of these proposed tunnels will be 3,819 metres, and another 2,815 metres in length. If executed on this plan, more than a tenth part of the whole route between Marseilles and Avignon will be under ground. The highest grade on the line is 5-1000ths, or 26.4 feet per mile. The policy of admitting such a proportion of subterranean road is quite at variance with the general practice in this country, and it seems to be of questionable expediency. Tunnels on railroads are liable to very great objections, not only on account of their great cost, and the hazard of finding the earth where they are attempted impracticable, or of a nature to interpose very great difficulties in the construction, but on account of the difficulty and cost of lighting and ventilation, and the perpetual nuisance, from the smoke, dampness, and darkness, which are inseparable from tunnels of great length. So serious are these objections, that it seems desirable to avoid them, if no saving in cost be practicable, at the sacrifice of much steeper grades for preserving a line upon the surface of the earth, or so near to the surface that it may be attained by means of an open cutting. Most European engineers appear to have acted under an excessive dread of high grades and of curves. It is not to be denied that steep grades, and curvatures of any kind, are blemishes in railroads. But ample experience on the railroads in Massachusetts proves that occasional ascents and descents, not exceeding one in 200, in their effect on the passenger transport and the ordinary traffic, produce hardly a perceptible effect on the rapidity of the trains, or the cost of motive

power; and that the slight inconveniences which may result from these grades are fully counterbalanced by the greater facility of draining through deep cuts, afforded by the descent. It is found, moreover, that inclinations of more than twice the rate above named are attended with much slighter inconveniences than had been apprehended. They involve a slight increase of expense, from the necessity of using heavier locomotive engines, and consequently a greater expenditure of fuel; but this objection is trivial in comparison with the nuisances produced by the noxious atmosphere of extensive tunnels. So also experience shows, that curves in the track of a railway, of no shorter radius than 1,500 to 2,500 feet, are attended with much less serious inconvenience or injury, than had been apprehended; and the necessity of submitting to such degrees of curvature, attended with grades not exceeding the rates above mentioned, as the alternative for avoiding an extensive line of tunnel, especially on a railway designed chiefly for the transport of travellers, should not prevent a preference being given to an open, over a subterranean railroad.

It cannot, of course, be determined, without a knowledge of the ground, whether on a given line of railroad any number of proposed tunnels might be dispensed with, by a different choice of the line, and by admitting of increased rates of grade and greater degrees of curvature for the purpose of surmounting, instead of penetrating through the summits which intercept the track; but it seems not improbable, that of the 10 tunnels, and the 6 1-2 miles of subterraneous track above proposed, some part at least might be dispensed with, by a greater deviation than has been proposed from the ideal perfection of a level and straight road. We the more readily adopt this opinion, from observing that in the *exposé* of the Minister of Public Works, from which the above statements are taken, it is in no case proposed to adopt a greater degree of inclination than one in 200, and rarely greater than one in 333. It seems not improbable, that by adopting a wider limit for the maximum grade on the several lines, a very material saving of expense might be made, with a slight depreciation in the actual utility of the road.

In addition to the lines of railway described in the foregoing *projet*, and recommended by the Minister of Public Works, he subsequently came to the resolution of recommending still another line. The inhabitants of the departments at the east of Paris strongly pressed their claim for a direct line to Strasburgh, by way of the Marne, Bar le Duc, and Nancy. The councils of the departments, and the principal bodies of the principal towns on the route, came forward and voted their full share of contribution to the work. The Minister, in consequence, recommended an addition to the *projet*, authorizing the immediate commencement of a railroad on this route, beginning with

the portion of it from Bar le Duc to Nancy, and leaving the residue to be definitively designated according to the result of further investigations. The *projet* was under consideration in the Chamber of Deputies, at the date of the latest newspapers received from France.

ARTICLE VI.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS OF PENNSYLVANIA.

IN the notice of the improvements in Pennsylvania in the last Number, [p. 99,] it was remarked, that the system of works was deficient in not providing the best line of communication for the rapid and cheap transport of passengers and goods from Philadelphia to the Ohio River. It has been for some years past an object of serious inquiry, in what mode this deficiency may be best supplied. It seems to be admitted, that the end cannot be attained but by an entirely new work, extending from Harrisburgh to Pittsburgh. The objections to this undertaking, independently of the difficulty of commanding the necessary means for so costly a work in the present state of the public finances, are its great cost, and its inevitable effect of destroying the value and productiveness of the works already constructed, between the same points, at so heavy an expense to the state. The two sections of the canal, together with the Portage Railroad, have caused an expenditure of about \$10,000,000, which works would be in a great measure superseded, by the construction of such a railroad as the face of country seems to admit of, between the two extremities of the route.

A third Report of Charles L. Schlatter, principal engineer in the service of Pennsylvania, on the subject of a continuous railroad from Harrisburgh to Pittsburgh, has been lately printed by order of the legislature. This report, with those which have preceded it, contains the results of long continued and very elaborate investigations for ascertaining the best route for a railroad adapted to the purpose above stated. Reports are given of surveys and estimates of three distinct routes, called the *Northern*, *Southern*, and *Middle* routes. The engineer gives the preference, on very good grounds, to the middle route; it being not only the shortest of the three, but admits of being constructed with a less maximum grade, and a less aggregate amount of ascent and descent, than either of the others. The length of the northern route is 320 1-2 miles, that of the southern 291 1-2,

and of the middle 229 1-2. By this last route, the distance from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh, including the Columbia road to Lancaster, with the Lancaster and Harrisburgh Railroad, would be 337 miles, in place of 395 miles, the length of the present line of railroads and canals.

The general course of this route is for the most part nearly direct. After pursuing the east branch of the Susquehanna for nearly five miles above Harrisburgh, it crosses the river, and proceeds thence along the right bank, until it meets the Juniata, and thence along the right bank of that river to a point two and a half miles below Lewis-town. It there crosses the Juniata, and pursuing the valley of the Kishacoquillas Creek for a distance of about eight miles, thence in a northwesterly direction to the Stone Mountain, the slope of which it ascends gradually for some distance, and then penetrates it by a tunnel of 1866 yards in length. Thence the line crosses the head waters of Stone Creek, and descending the valley of Shaver's Creek, and the southern slope of Tussey's Mountain to the Little Juniata, it follows the valley of that river to Logan's Narrows, where it begins to ascend the Alleghany Mountain. After an ascent of 32 miles, at a grade not exceeding 45 feet in a mile, it reaches the summit at an elevation of 2,183 feet above the level of the sea. At a distance of ten miles it crosses another summit, and thence descends the western slope of the mountain, somewhat less steep, a distance of 39 miles, to Black Lick Creek, near Ebensburgh. It thence follows this creek to its junction with the Connemaugh River, and after crossing this river near Blairsville, it proceeds in nearly a direct course to Pittsburgh. The length of this line, as above stated, is 229 1-2 miles; the aggregate ascent 3,058 feet; the descent 2,631 feet; the elevation at the termination at Pittsburgh being 755 feet above tidewater; the maximum grade 45 feet; and the estimated cost of construction for a road graded for a double track, with a single track laid down, \$9,496,709. This estimate includes no allowance for locomotive engines and cars. The elevation of the grade of the proposed tunnel through the Stone Mountain is 1,065 feet above tide-water, and 765 feet below the crest of the mountain.

The route appears to be a highly eligible one, for so mountainous a region, and more direct than could have been expected to be found practicable. The grades are not too steep to admit of rapid travelling with safety, by passenger trains, and the maximum corresponds with that of the Columbia and Harrisburgh Railroads. The cost, however, is so great as to forbid the idea of the work being undertaken in the present condition of the finances of the State.

M I S C E L L A N Y .

EXPEDITION TO THE NIGER.

In the latter part of the year 1839, the British Government came to the resolution of taking a vigorous step for the suppression of the traffic in slaves in Africa, by measures designed to operate directly on the native chiefs, who are instrumental in promoting it. For this purpose it was resolved to send an expedition to the River Niger, with commissioners empowered to open a direct negotiation with the negro chiefs, for abolishing this inhuman trade within their respective dominions, and for establishing commercial relations with them. The plan of this expedition having been matured, a contract was made with Messrs. Laird of Liverpool, to build three iron steam vessels, to be strong, but of light draught, and adapted for river navigation, and to be furnished with every improvement which experience had suggested for securing their efficiency and the health of their crews.

These vessels were launched in September, namely, the *Albert* and *Wilberforce*, each 136 feet in length, of 27 feet breadth of beam, drawing 5 feet 9 inches water when loaded, and of 440 tons burthen; and the *Soudan*, 110 feet in length, 22 in width, 250 tons burthen, and drawing 4 feet water. The two larger vessels were furnished with two engines each, of 35-horse power, and the other with one engine of the same size. The larger vessels were capable of carrying coals sufficient for 15 days' use, working 12 hours per day; and the other for 10 days. They were equipped with every thing necessary for the service, and provided with an ample supply of provisions, including preserved meats, and with an extra supply of medicines, agricultural implements, and other articles for the use of the natives. They were provided with ventilating tubes, for producing a free circulation of fresh air between decks, and with various other improvements, for the preservation of the health of those on board. They were in readiness for departure in April, 1841.

The command of the expedition was given to Capt. H. D. Trotter of the Royal Navy, who had distinguished himself in putting down the slave trade, when in command of the *Curlew*, on the coast of Africa, in 1837. The command of the second vessel, the *Wilberforce*, was given to Captain William Allen, the companion of Lander in his last voyage; and that of the *Soudan* to Captain Bird Allen, who had been long engaged in the surveying service in the West Indies. There were four lieutenants, and a large number of subordinate officers, with 110 seamen, marines, and stokers, many of whom were natives of Africa.

Besides being thus manned, the expedition was directed to stop at Sierra Leone, and there take on board interpreters, and also 120 Kroomen, to do the work requiring exposure, wooding, watering, &c., and men acquainted with agricultural operations, to be employed in establishing a model farm.

The three commanders, together with Captain Cook, were appointed commissioners, with authority to make treaties with the native chiefs, for carrying out the objects of the expedition. For the accomplishment of other objects connected with the expedition, a committee of the African Civilization Society engaged individuals eminent for their skill in every department of natural history, to accompany it. As botanist, Dr. Vogee, acting director of the botanic garden at Bonn, was engaged; as geologist, Dr. Stanger; and as naturalist, Mr. Frazer. A skilful gardener and seedsman was also employed, and a draughtsman, to delineate objects of natural history which should be of too delicate a nature to be preserved, and to furnish sketches of scenery, with the peculiar features of the native tribes with whom they should open an intercourse. Vocabularies were prepared, with the assistance of the most competent persons, of the languages which would be likely to be met with, which were printed in the most convenient form of reference, with a series of the most useful questions.

The expedition, after being detained a fortnight in the English Channel by contrary winds, made a successful voyage to the African coast, touching at Madeira and at Porto Grande, in St. Vincent, one of the Cape de Verds. The *Albert* made her passage from Plymouth to Madeira in eight and a half days, and all the steamers proved to be very good sea vessels, capable of being operated either with or without steam. They took in their reinforcements at Sierra Leone, where, as well as at the other ports, they were detained beyond their calculation, and touching at Monserado, proceeded to Cape Coast Castle, where they arrived on the 15th, 19th, and 24th of July. Here they replenished their coals and provision from a store-ship sent thither to meet them, and proceeded to the River Nun, one of the mouths of the Niger. Every thing thus far succeeded according to their desire, and they arrived at the river in due season to take advantage of the most favorable state of the navigation for large vessels.

On the 20th of August, the vessels of the expedition commenced the ascent of the river, having passed safely over the bar six days previously. This delay was occasioned by the necessity they were under of repairing what is technically termed "the tails" of their rudders, which had been damaged during their passage from Accra to the mouth of the stream. On the 26th, they anchored opposite to Eboe, a place situate at the upper angle of the Delta, and distant 120 miles from the sea. Thus far no case of sickness had occurred amongst the Europeans, which did not immediately yield to medical treatment. The weather was remarkably favorable, the thermometer ranging from 74 degrees to 84 degrees, with a clear sky and occasional refreshing showers.

After receiving a visit from Obi, the King of Eboe, on which occasion a treaty was concluded with him for the total abolition of the slave trade and human sacrifices, the expedition proceeded on its course, arriving at Iddah, 100 miles higher up, on the 2d of September. Here, for the first time, the African fever broke out amongst the crew with violence, commencing on board the *Albert*, and rapidly spreading to the *Wilberforce* and the *Soudan*. Captain Trotter, however, considered it his duty still to persevere. In this resolve it is some comfort to know that the other officers of the squadron fully concurred. Accordingly, after the ratification of a treaty similar to the one already described, with the Attah (King) of Iddah, and the purchase from him of a piece of land, to be chosen higher up the stream, for the establishment of a model farm, (the selection of which was left to the commissioners, the three commanders, and Mr. Cook,) the vessels ascended to the confluence of the Niger and the Chadda, 270 miles above the sea. This they reached on the 11th of September. A tract of land having been fixed on, not far from this point, for the farm, and having been duly made over by accredited agents of the Attah, the stores were landed, and the persons originally appointed to the office left in charge of them. In the mean time disease continued its afflicting ravages. To such an extent, indeed, did it spread, that on the 19th it was resolved to put the sick, now amounting to forty-six, on board the *Soudan*, and to despatch her to the sea. Lieutenant Fishbourne, of the *Albert*, was placed in charge of her, while her commander, Captain B. Allen, removed on board the *Albert*. With regard to the *Soudan* we need only further remark, that at the mouth of the river she happily fell in with Her Majesty's steamer *Dolphin*, to which the sufferers were transferred, and which proceeded with them direct to the Island of Ascension, while the *Soudan* continued her course to Fernando Po. Meanwhile it was determined by the commanders of the vessels still up the river to prosecute their voyage, the *Wilberforce* ascending the Chadda, and the *Albert* the Niger. The particulars thus far recounted have, by scraps, been for the most part before the public for the last three weeks. It seems necessary, however, briefly to recapitulate them, in order to a perfect understanding of the remainder of this sad narrative. By sunset on the evening of the 19th, (the day on which the *Soudan* sailed from the confluence,) several entirely new cases of fever had broken out on board the *Wilberforce*; the history of which vessel, now about to be separated from her consort, we shall take up first. Amongst these were her commander, Captain William Allen, her master, and purser; also the botanist and the mineralogist, attached to the expedition. To ascend the Chadda under these circumstances would, of course, have been madness; to stay at the confluence but little less. No alternative remained except that of turning the vessel's head down the stream, and following in the track of the *Soudan*. Accordingly immediate preparations were made for carrying into effect this new change of plan, and on the morning of the 21st the *Wilberforce* began her downward voyage, having previously taken on board

sundry fresh patients from the *Albert*. Owing to various stoppages occasioned by the necessity of procuring supplies of wood, a duty of peculiar difficulty in the weak-handed condition of the vessel, she did not reach the open sea until the 29th. On the morning of the 3d of October, however, by the blessing of Almighty God, she anchored safely in the port of Clarence, Fernando Po. During her passage to the mouth of the river she lost her purser, Mr. Wakeham, and after her arrival at Clarence, Mr. Harvey, the master of the *Albert*, and Mr. Collman, assistant-surgeon of the Soudan. Here it affords us the greatest pleasure to record an instance of that noble generosity which we trust and believe marks the character of the British merchant and the British sailor. Mr. Jamieson, of Liverpool, the owner of several vessels trading on the western coast of Africa, had sent out instructions to the ship-masters in his employ to render all the assistance in their power to the officers and crews of the Niger expedition. Accordingly, on the 6th of October, the *Ethiope* steamer, one of the vessels alluded to, made her appearance at Fernando Po, and her commander, Mr. Becroft, at the solicitation of Captain William Allen, instantly turned his vessel's head towards the Niger, with an intent to ascend in search of the *Albert*, and render her any assistance she might appear to require.

On the 9th, the *Wilberforce* again weighed anchor and set sail for Ascension, where she arrived after a tedious passage of more than five weeks, on the 17th of November. During the former part of this passage she was accompanied by Her Majesty's steamer *Pluto*, which, in various ways, rendered her effective assistance. The last accounts received from the *Wilberforce* convey the gratifying intelligence that the fever appeared to have been almost subdued, for that no serious case of illness remained on board.

We now return to the *Albert*, which we left on the eve of her departure from the confluence to ascend the Niger. This, as we have already said, was on the 21st of September. On the 28th she arrived at Egga, situate between 50 and 60 miles above the junction of the Chadda, and 320 from the sea. During this short passage she lost two of her seamen, whilst several others were taken ill; nor did the officers escape; Captain Bird Allen was attacked within four hours after the departure of the *Wilberforce*, and Captain Trotter himself, whilst the vessel lay at Egga. At this place the Kroomen were employed in taking in a large quantity of firewood. This necessary duty, of course, occupied considerable time. As soon as it was completed, Captain Trotter, who now saw clearly the necessity of abandoning the enterprise, and whose judgment was confirmed by that of the surgeon, (Dr. M'William,) gave the necessary orders for returning down the river. On the 4th of October, therefore, the steam was once more got up, and the *Albert* followed her consorts to the sea. Her condition at this period may be judged of by the fact that she had but a single officer and two or three European seamen capable of performing their duty. The confluence was passed upon the 9th, and immediately afterwards

the model farm, where, finding the Europeans all ill of the fever, Capt. Trotter took them on board, and continued to pursue his melancholy voyage. On the 12th the vessel anchored off Eboe, and was supplied by King Obi with a quantity of wood, which he had previously got ready for her, and which with great kindness he put on board with the least possible delay. Here Mr. Kingdon, the clerk of the Sudan, died. He had remained ashore at the farm during the Albert's absence at Egga, and was dangerously ill at the period of his reëmbarkation. Thus far the Albert had made her way in safety, through the merciful Providence of God; but her poor suffering inmates could not forget the dangerous bar which was still to be passed before they could leave the region of pestilence and death behind them. Happily, their anxieties on this head were destined to a speedy termination, for in the afternoon of the 13th their eyes were gladdened with the sight of the *Ethiope's* smoke, as she steamed rapidly up the water of the Delta. Captain Becroft at once put his first engineer on board the unfortunate Albert, and by incessant exertions both vessels crossed the bar soon after sunrise on the 16th, and cast anchor in Clarence-cove late in the evening of the following day.

Next morning 28 patients were taken ashore, and kindly received into various private houses. Amongst the sufferers were Captains Trotter and Bird Allen; the former happily convalescent, the latter, alas! fast sinking into the grave. On the 25th, at half-past 9 A. M., his brave and gentle spirit exchanged a world of sorrow for one of unmixed and unchanging joy.

Captain Trotter, in a letter to the Lords of the Admiralty, relating to the foregoing incidents, says: "On the 5th of October, Mr. Willie weighed and dropped down the river, but was soon prevented by sickness from carrying on duty; and Dr. M'William, assisted by only one white seaman, lately recovered from fever, took charge of the vessel, not thinking it right, in my state of fever, to report Mr. Willie's illness. From want of engineers, we should have had to drop down the whole length of the river without steam, had not Dr. Stanger, the geologist, in the most spirited manner, after consulting Tredgold's work on steam, and getting some little instruction from the convalescent engineer, undertaken to work the engine himself. The heat of the engine-room affected the engineer so much as to throw him back in his convalescence, and prevent him rendering any further assistance, but Dr. Stanger took the vessel safely below Eboe, without anything going wrong with the machinery, while Dr. M'William, in addition to his enormous press of duty, as a medical officer, conducted the ship down the river in the most able and judicious manner. I may here remark, that the Doctor steered the ship entirely by Commander William Allen's excellent chart of the Niger, of the correctness of which we had a good opportunity of judging on ascending the river, and which proved eminently useful on the passage down; and Mr. Brown, clerk, a native of Africa, who had been up the river before, also rendered him considerable assistance in the pilotage. When about 100

miles from the sea, Captain Becroft happily made his appearance in the *Ethiope* steamer, having been requested to ascend the river and communicate with us by Commander William Allen of the *Wilberforce*; and it was really a providential mercy that he arrived when he did, for had any accident, however trivial, happened to the engines, they could not have been worked any longer, as Dr. Stanger had no knowledge of the manner of rectifying it. Fever still prevented my going on deck, and there was no executive officer to take the vessel over the bar, and only one convalescent sailor doing duty, and no black sailor who could properly take the helm. Captain Becroft, however, came on board with an engineer, and not only took the vessel over the bar, but brought her all the way across to this anchorage, [Fernando Po,] a distance of 160 miles, where we arrived in safety on the 17th inst. The assistance rendered by Captain Becroft, independent of the services of his vessel, the *Ethiope*, was, I can assure their Lordships, almost indispensable to the safety of the *Albert*; and I consider it to have been highly conducive to the preservation of many valuable lives, which might have been sacrificed, had we run aground in the Delta, and remained there even for a few days."

The sick were provided for with the greatest kindness by the agent of the West African Company. The air was found to be cooler by 12 degrees, than on the Niger. The *Albert*, on her return from the Niger, met the *Soudan* off the bar of the Nun, under the command of Lieutenant Strange, Lieutenant Fishbourne having gone among the sick to Ascension. She was about to reascend the river to render assistance to the *Albert*. She was in a very inefficient state, and returned to Fernando Po. Captain Trotter, in the letter above quoted, gives the following account of the state of the expedition on the 25th of October:

"Mr. Strange is at present in charge of the *Albert*, as well as the *Soudan*, the officers of the ship of every rank being in sick quarters, with the exception of Mr. Mouat, assistant-clerk, doing duty at the hospital.

"I regret to state, that in addition to the loss of Mr. Nightingale, assistant-surgeon, and four seamen, as mentioned in my letter of the 18th of September, between the Confluence and Egga, Mr. Lodge, the second engineer, threw himself overboard in a fit of delirium, and was drowned; and that afterwards two seamen and one marine of this ship died, and Mr. Kingdon, seamen's schoolmaster of the *Soudan*; and that Mr. Willie, mate, and the purser's steward, have died here since our arrival; and it is my painful duty to add that the death of Commander Bird Allen, of the *Soudan*, has been this moment reported to me, and that Mr. D. H. Stenhouse, acting Lieutenant of the *Albert*, is lying in a most precarious state. For several days after Mr. Willie was taken ill, he insisted occasionally upon getting out of his cot, (which was on deck,) and giving orders; and I fear the extra exertions of this zealous young officer contributed much to aggravate his case.

"I am happy to say there is a general improvement taking place in

the remainder of the sick, with the exception of Dr. M'William and Mr. Woodhouse, assistant-surgeon, who have lately been taken ill, the latter with the 'river fever,' and Dr. M'William, it is feared, may prove to be so likewise; but these cases, I trust, will not prove severe, now that we are in a better and cooler climate. I hope all the patients will be so far improved, and the engineers so much recovered, as in a short time to be able to proceed with the *Albert* to Ascension.

"I call the disease the 'river fever,' because the surgeons report it to be of a nature that is not treated of in any work on the subject, and it has such peculiarities as they appear never before to have witnessed either in African or West-Indian fever.

"The *Soudan*, as alluded to before, left the Confluence on her passage down the river on the 19th of September, under charge of Lieutenant Fishbourne, with the master, a mate, and the second engineer able to do a little duty; but on the following day these officers were too ill to afford Mr. Fishbourne any assistance. He had, however, two stokers able to drive the engines, who were for a time well enough to do duty, and he reached the mouth of the Nun in the short space of two days afterwards. During the last 24 hours before reaching Fernando Po he was compelled to work the engines and do every other duty himself. Such exertions could not fail to hurt his health, and he was seized with fever at this place after his arrival, though I am happy to say he was doing well on board the *Wilberforce* when she sailed for Ascension.

"I beg strongly to recommend the zeal and exertions of this officer for the favorable consideration of their Lordships.

"The *Soudan* opportunely met the *Dolphin* at the mouth of the Nun, and received prompt assistance from her commander, who embarked 35 patients, (all that were fit to be removed,) and sailed with them for Ascension, under charge of Mr. Sterling, assistant-surgeon of the *Wilberforce*.

"Before the *Soudan* reached Fernando Po, Mr. Marshall, acting-surgeon, and Mr. Waters, clerk in charge, fell a sacrifice to the climate, and a stoker of the *Soudan*, and the seaman's schoolmaster of the *Albert*, died after their arrival."

It appears from information to the latest date, that the whole number of deaths of officers and men, in the expedition, was 48, of whom 13 were officers and 35 privates. Of these deaths 39 were of the river fever and its consequences, and the rest from casualties and other diseases. The deaths in the *Albert*, which was 64 days in the river, and at its mouth, were 24; in the *Wilberforce*, which was 45 days in the river and at the mouth, 10; and in the *Soudan*, which was in the river 40 days, 14. Only five white persons in the *Wilberforce* escaped the fever; only four escaped in the *Albert*; and not one in the *Soudan*. Captain Trotter in his letter remarks: "When I add that Dr. M'William is of opinion that few, if any, will be fit to return to the coast of Africa who have had the fever, and that every lieutenant excepting Mr. Strange, all the medical officers but Dr. Pritchett and Mr.

Thompson, (it is doubtful yet whether Dr. M'William has the river fever or not,) all the mates, masters, second masters, and clerks, the whole of the engineers and stokers of the expedition, and the gunner of the *Albert*, (the only vessel that has an officer of that rank,) have been attacked, their Lordships will be able to form an idea of the paralyzed state of the steam vessels."

Dr. M'William is of opinion that the Niger is not fit for white constitutions. Captain Trotter was of opinion that it would be scarcely possible to officer more than one of the steamers, unless assistance should be sent from England. Captain Trotter states further, "It will be necessary for one steam-vessel to go up the Niger next year, as I left the *Amelia* tender at the confluence of the Niger and the Chadda, for the protection of the people of the model farm. Not thinking it right to leave up the river any white person after the fatal sickness we had experienced, I placed the vessel in charge of a trustworthy black, with twelve other natives of Africa under him, all intelligent steady men. Their Lordships will remember that they gave permission for the utensils of the model farm to be carried out by the expedition, which were landed at the desire of Mr. Can, the superintendent, at a spot which he selected for the site of the farm, situated immediately opposite to the confluence; and as Mr. Can made a request for naval protection to his people in the absence of the steamers, which I considered very reasonable, I obtained volunteers to remain there in the *Amelia* before the *Albert* went to Egga; and on my return to the confluence, I was too ill to do duty, but Dr. M'William, at my desire, sent nine months' provisions on board, and cowries were left to buy several months' more. In our distressed state, it would have been impossible to tow the *Amelia* down the river, but, independently of that consideration, it was, I conceive, necessary to leave a vessel for the protection of the farm people.

"It is also very desirable that a vessel should get up to Rabbah, if possible, next year, not only to complete a series of treaties which have been already commenced, but to show the people of Rabbah that a man-of-war can get up to their town; and the presence of one of Her Majesty's vessels there might, I conceive, have a beneficial effect in their future treatment of the Nufi nation, whom we found much oppressed by the Felatahs, and also tend much to the extinction of the slave trade in the upper part of the Niger. This, however, cannot be determined upon till I meet my brother commissioners at Ascension. Should only one of the steamers ascend the Niger next year, I would prefer one of the larger ones to be selected, from their superior velocity and stowage. Under present circumstances I would countermand the coals which I requested might be forwarded to Bonny, though, if already shipped, they will doubtless prove very useful; for it is more difficult to procure wood in that than in most other African rivers, owing to the prejudice of the natives against Kroomen cutting it."

Captain Trotter, shortly after the date of the foregoing letter, in consequence of the state of his health, returned to England, where he

arrived near the end of January. Some particulars of the condition of the sick have been learned since his departure. The government has intimated that it is not their intention to prosecute the expedition further. The vessels will probably return to England in the ensuing summer, after relieving the party who were left upon the Niger. Thus an enterprise, undertaken with the most philanthropic intentions, has entirely failed, and with a melancholy sacrifice of human life.

THE QUINTUPLE TREATY FOR THE SUPPRESSION OF THE AFRICAN
SLAVE TRADE.

[Signed at London, December 20, 1841.]

ART. I. — THEIR Majesties the Emperor of Austria, King of Hungary and Bohemia, the King of Prussia, and the Emperor of all the Russias, engage to prohibit all trade in slaves, either by their respective subjects or under their respective flags, or by means of capital belonging to their respective subjects; and to declare such traffic piracy. Their Majesties further declare, that any vessel which may attempt to carry on the slave trade shall, by that fact alone, lose all right to the protection of their flag.

ART. II. — In order more completely to accomplish the object of the present treaty, the high contracting parties agree by common consent, that those of their ships of war which shall be provided with special warrants and orders, prepared according to the forms of the annex A of the present treaty, may search every merchant vessel belonging to any one of the high contracting parties which shall, on reasonable grounds, be suspected of being engaged in the traffic in slaves, or of having been fitted out for that purpose, or of having been engaged in the traffic during the voyage in which she shall have been met with by the said cruisers; and that such cruisers may detain, and send, or carry away such vessels in order that they may be brought to trial in the manner hereafter agreed upon.

Nevertheless, the above-mentioned right of searching merchant vessels of any one or other of the high contracting parties, shall be exercised only by ships of war, whose commanders shall have the rank of captain, or that of lieutenant in the Royal or Imperial Navy, unless the command shall, by reason of death or otherwise, have devolved upon an officer of inferior rank. The commander of such ship of war shall be furnished with warrants according to the form annexed to the present treaty, under letter A.

The said mutual right of search shall not be exercised within the Mediterranean Sea. Moreover, the space within which the exercise of the said right shall be confined, shall be bounded, on the north by 32d parallel of north latitude; on the west, by the eastern coast of

America, from the point where the 32d parallel of north latitude strikes that coast, down to the 45th parallel of south latitude ; on the south by the 45th parallel of south latitude, from the point where that parallel strikes the eastern coast of America to the 80th degree of longitude east from the meridian of Greenwich ; and on the east by the same degree of longitude, from the point where it is intersected by the 45th parallel of south latitude up to the coast of India.

ART. III. — Each of the high contracting parties which may choose to employ cruisers for the suppression of the slave trade, and to exercise the mutual right of search, reserves to itself to fix, according to its own convenience, the number of the ships of war which shall be employed on the service stipulated in the second article of the present treaty, as well as the stations on which the said ships shall cruise.

The names of the ships appointed for this purpose, and those of their commanders, shall be communicated by each of the high contracting parties to the others ; and they shall reciprocally apprise each other every time that a cruiser shall be placed on a station, or shall be recalled thence, in order that the necessary warrants may be delivered by the Governments authorizing the search, and returned to those Governments by the Government which has received them, when those warrants shall no longer be necessary for the execution of the present treaty.

ART. IV. — Immediately after the Government which employs the cruisers shall have notified to the Government which is to authorize the search, the number and the names of the cruisers which it intends to employ, the warrants authorizing the search shall be made out according to the form annexed to the present treaty, under letter A, and shall be delivered by the Government which authorizes the search to the Government which employs the cruiser.

In no case shall the mutual right of search be exercised upon the ships of war of the high contracting parties.

The high contracting parties shall agree upon a particular signal, to be used exclusively by those cruisers which shall be invested with the right of search.

ART. V. — The cruisers of the high contracting parties authorized to exercise the right of search and detention in execution of the present treaty shall conform themselves strictly to the instructions annexed to the said treaty, under letter B, in all that relates to the formalities of the search and of the detention, as well as to the measures to be taken, in order that the vessels suspected of having been employed in the traffic may be delivered over to the competent tribunals.

The high contracting parties reserve to themselves the right of making in these instructions by common consent, such alterations as circumstances may render necessary.

The cruisers of the high contracting parties shall mutually afford to each other assistance in all cases when it may be useful that they should act in concert.

ART. VI. — Whenever a merchant vessel, sailing under the flag of one

of the high contracting parties, shall have been detained by a cruiser of the other, duly authorized to that effect, conformably to the provisions of the present treaty, such merchant vessel, as well as the master, the crew, the cargo, and the slaves who may be on board, shall be brought into such place as the high contracting parties shall have respectively designated for that purpose, and they shall be delivered over to the authorities appointed with that view by the Government within whose possessions such place is situated, in order that proceedings may be had with respect to them before the competent tribunals in the manner hereafter specified.

When the commander of the cruiser shall not think fit to undertake himself the bringing in and the delivery up of the detained vessel, he shall intrust that duty to an officer of the rank of lieutenant in the Royal or Imperial navy, or at least to the officer who shall at the time be the third in authority on board the detaining ship.

ART. VII. — If the commander of a cruiser of one of the high contracting parties should have reason to suspect that a merchant vessel sailing under the convoy of, or in company with, a ship of war of one of the other contracting parties, has been engaged in the slave trade, or has been fitted out for that trade, he shall make known his suspicions to the commander of the ship of war, who shall proceed alone to search the suspected vessel; and in case the last mentioned commander should ascertain that the suspicion is well founded, he shall cause the vessel, as well as the master, the crew, the cargo, and the slaves who may be on board, to be taken into a port belonging to the nation of the detained vessel, to be there proceeded against before the competent tribunals, in the manner hereafter directed.

ART. VIII. — As soon as a merchant vessel, detained and sent in for adjudication, shall arrive at the port to which she is to be carried in conformity with annex B to the present treaty, the commander of the cruiser which shall have detained her, or the officer appointed to bring her in, shall deliver to the authorities appointed for that purpose a copy, signed by himself, of all the lists, declarations, and other documents specified in the instructions annexed to the present treaty, under letter B; and the said authorities shall proceed, in consequence, to the search of the detained vessel, and of her cargo, as also to an inspection of her crew, and of the slaves who may be on board, after having previously given notice of the time of such search and inspection to the commander of the cruiser, or to the officer who shall have brought in the vessel, in order that he, or some person whom he may appoint to represent him, may be present thereat.

A minute of these proceedings shall be drawn up in duplicate, which shall be signed by the persons who shall have taken part in, or who shall have been present at, the same; and one of these documents shall be delivered to the commander of the cruiser, or to the officer appointed by him to bring in the detained vessel.

ART. IX. — Every merchant vessel of any one or other of the five nations, which shall be searched and detained in virtue of the provi-

sions of the present treaty, shall, unless proof be given to the contrary, be deemed to have been engaged in the slave trade, or to have been fitted out for that traffic, if in the fitting, in the equipment, or on board the said vessel, during the voyage in which she was detained, there shall be found to have been one of the articles hereafter specified, that is to say :

1. Hatches with open gratings, instead of the close hatches which are used in merchant vessels.

2. Divisions or bulk-heads, in the hold or on deck, in greater number than are necessary for vessels engaged in lawful trade.

3. Spare plank fitted for being laid down as a second or slave-deck.

4. Shackles, bolts, or handcuffs.

5. A larger quantity of water, in casks or in tanks, than is requisite for the consumption of the crew of such merchant vessel.

6. An extraordinary number of water-casks, or of other receptacles for holding liquid, unless the master shall produce a certificate from the custom-house at the place from which he cleared outwards, stating that sufficient security had been given by the owners of such vessel that such extra number of casks or of other receptacles should only be used to hold palm-oil, or for other purposes of lawful commerce.

7. A greater quantity of mess-tubs or kide than are requisite for the use of the crew of such merchant vessel.

8. A boiler, or other cooking apparatus, of an unusual size, and larger, or capable of being made larger, than requisite for the use of the crew of such merchant vessel ; or more than one boiler, or other cooking apparatus, of the ordinary size.

9. An extraordinary quantity of rice, of the flour of Brazil manioc, or cassada, commonly called farina, or of maize, or of Indian corn, or of any other article of food whatever, beyond the probable wants of the crew ; unless such quantity of rice, farina, maize, Indian corn, or any other article of food, should be entered on the manifest, as forming a part of the trading cargo of the vessel.

10. A quantity of mats or matting greater than is necessary for the use of such merchant vessel, unless such mats or matting be entered on the manifest as forming part of the cargo.

If it is established, that one or more of the articles above specified are on board, or have been on board during the voyage in which the vessel was captured, that fact shall be considered as *prima facie* evidence that the vessel was employed in the traffic ; she shall in consequence be condemned, and declared lawful prize, unless the master or the owners shall furnish clear and incontrovertible evidence, proving to the satisfaction of the tribunal, that at the time of her detention or capture the vessel was employed in a lawful undertaking ; and that such of the different articles above specified as were found on board at the time of detention, or which might have been embarked during the voyage on which she was engaged when she was captured, were indispensable for the accomplishment of the lawful object of her voyage.

ART. X. — Proceedings shall be immediately taken against the

vessel detained, as above stated, her master, her crew, and her cargo, before the competent tribunals of the country to which she belongs; and they shall be tried and adjudged according to the established forms and laws in force in that country; and if it results from the proceedings that the said vessel was employed in the slave trade, or fitted out for that traffic, the vessel, her fittings, and her cargo of merchandise, shall be confiscated; and the master, the crew, and their accomplices, shall be dealt with conformably to the laws by which they shall have been tried.

In case of confiscation, the proceeds of the sale of the aforesaid vessel shall, within the space of six months, reckoning from the date of the sale, be placed at the disposal of the Government of the country to which the ship which made the capture belongs, in order to be employed in conformity with the laws of that country.

ART. XI. — If any one of the articles specified in Article IX. of the present treaty is found on board a merchant vessel, or if it is proved to have been on board of her during the voyage in which she was captured, no compensation for losses, damages, or expenses, consequent upon the detention of such vessel, shall in any case be granted, either to the master or to the owner, or to any other person interested in the equipment or in the lading, even though a sentence of condemnation should not have been pronounced against the vessel, as a consequence of her detention.

ART. XII. — In all cases in which a vessel shall have been detained in conformity with the present treaty, as having been employed in the slave trade, or fitted out for that traffic, and shall, in consequence, have been tried and confiscated, the Government of the cruiser which shall have made the capture, or the Government whose tribunal shall have condemned the vessel, may purchase the condemned vessel for the service of its Royal navy, at the price fixed by a competent person, selected for that purpose by the said tribunal. The Government whose cruiser shall have made the capture shall have a right of preference in the purchase of the vessel. But if the condemned vessel should not be purchased in the manner above pointed out, she shall be wholly broken up immediately after the sentence of confiscation, and sold in separate portions after having been broken up.

ART. XIII. — When by the sentence of the competent tribunal it shall have been ascertained that a merchant vessel detained in virtue of the present treaty was not engaged in the slave trade, and was not fitted out for that traffic, she shall be restored to the lawful owner or owners. And if, in the course of the proceedings, it shall have been proved that the vessel was searched and detained illegally, or without sufficient cause of suspicion; or that the search and detention were attended with abuse or vexation, the commander of the cruiser or the officer who shall have boarded the said vessel, or the officer who shall have been intrusted with bringing her in, and under whose authority, according to the nature of the case, the abuse or vexation shall have occurred, shall be liable in costs and damages to the masters and the owners of the vessel and of the cargo.

These costs and damages may be awarded by the tribunal before which the proceedings against the detained vessel, her master, crew, and cargo, shall have been instituted; and the Government of the country to which the officer who shall have given occasion for such award shall belong, shall pay the amount of the said costs and damages within the period of six months from the date of the sentence, when the sentence shall have been pronounced by a tribunal sitting in Europe; and within the period of one year when the trial shall have taken place out of Europe.

ART. XIV. — When in the search or detention of a merchant vessel effected in virtue of the present treaty any abuse or vexation shall have been committed, and when the vessel shall not have been delivered over to the jurisdiction of her own nation, the master shall make a declaration upon oath of the abuses or vexations of which he shall have to complain, as well as of the costs and damages to which he shall lay claim; and such declaration shall be made by him before the competent authorities of the first port of his own country at which he shall arrive, or before the consular agent of his own nation at a foreign port, if the vessel shall in the first instance touch at a foreign port where there is such an agent.

The declarations shall be verified by means of an examination upon oath of the principal persons amongst the crew or the passengers, who shall have witnessed the search or detention; and a formal statement of the whole shall be drawn up, two copies whereof shall be delivered to the master, who shall forward one of them to his Government, in support of his claim for costs and damages.

It is understood, that if any circumstance beyond control shall prevent the master from making his declaration, it may be made by the owner of the vessel, or by any other person interested in the equipment or in the lading of the vessel.

On a copy of the formal statement above mentioned being officially transmitted to it, the Government of the country to which the officer to whom the abuses or vexations shall be imputed shall belong, shall forthwith institute an inquiry; and if the validity of the complaint shall be ascertained, that Government shall cause to be paid to the master or the owner, or to any other person interested in the equipment or lading of the molested vessel, the amount of costs and damages which shall be due to him.

ART. XV. — The high contracting parties engage reciprocally to communicate to each other, when asked to do so, and without expense, copies of the proceedings instituted, and of the judgments given, relative to vessels searched or detained in execution of the provisions of this treaty.

ART. XVI. — The high contracting parties agree to insure the immediate freedom of all the slaves who shall be found on board vessels detained and condemned in virtue of the stipulations of the present treaty.

XVII. — The high contracting parties agree to invite the maritime

powers of Europe, which have not yet concluded treaties for the abolition of the slave trade, to accede to the present treaty.

ART. XVIII.—The acts or instruments annexed to the present treaty, and which it is mutually agreed to consider as forming an integral part thereof, are the following :

A.—Forms of warrants of authorization, and of orders for the guidance of the cruisers of each nation, in the searches and detentions to be made in virtue of the present treaty.

B.—Instructions for the cruisers of the naval forces employed in virtue of the present treaty, for the suppression of the slave trade.

ART. XIX.—The present treaty, consisting of nineteen articles, shall be ratified, and the ratifications thereof shall be exchanged at London at the expiration of two months from this date, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed the present treaty, in English and French, and have thereunto affixed the seal of their arms.

Done at London, the 20th day of December, in the year of our Lord, 1841.

ABERDEEN.
KOLLER.
ST. AULAIRE.
SCHLEINITZ.
BRUNOW.

A.

Annex. — Instructions to Cruisers.

1. Whenever a merchant vessel belonging to, or bearing the flag of, any one of the high contracting parties, shall be visited by a cruiser of any one of the other high contracting parties, the officer commanding the cruiser shall, before he proceeds to visit the said vessel, exhibit to the master of such vessel the special orders which confer upon him by exception the right to visit her; and he shall deliver to such master a certificate, signed by himself, specifying his rank in the navy of his country, and the name of the ship which he commands, and declaring that the only object of his visit is to ascertain whether the vessel is engaged in the slave trade, or is fitted out for the purpose of such traffic, or has been engaged in that traffic during the voyage, in which she has been met with by the said cruiser. When the visit is made by an officer of the cruiser other than her commander, such officer shall not be under the rank of lieutenant in the navy; unless he be the officer who at the time is second in command of the ship by which the visit is made; and in this case, such officer shall exhibit to the master of the merchant vessel a copy of the special orders above mentioned, signed by the commander of the cruiser; and shall likewise deliver to such master a certificate, signed by himself, specifying the rank which he holds in the navy of his country, the name of the commander under whose orders he is acting, the name of the cruiser to which he belongs, and the object of his visit as heretofore recited.

If it shall be ascertained by the visit that the ship's papers are regular, and her proceedings lawful, the officer shall certify upon the log-book of the vessel, that the visit took place in virtue of the special orders above mentioned; and when these formalities shall have been completed, the vessel shall be permitted to continue her course.

2. If, in consequence of the visit, the officer commanding the cruiser shall be of opinion that there are sufficient grounds for believing that the vessel is engaged in

the slave trade, or has been fitted out for that traffic, or has been engaged in that traffic during the voyage in which she is met with by the cruiser; and if he shall in consequence determine to detain her, and to have her delivered up to the jurisdiction of the competent authorities, he shall forthwith cause a list to be made out, in duplicate, of all the papers found on board, and he shall sign this list and the duplicate, adding, after his own name, his rank in the navy, and the name of the vessel under his command.

He shall, in like manner, make out and sign, in duplicate, a declaration, stating the place and time of the detention, the name of the vessel, and that of her master, the names of the persons composing her crew, and the number and condition of the slaves found on board.

This declaration shall further contain an exact description of the state of the vessel and her cargo.

3. The commander of the cruiser shall, without delay, carry or send the detained vessel, with master, crew, passengers, cargo, and the slaves found on board, to one of the ports hereinafter specified, in order that proceedings may be instituted in regard to them, conformably to the laws of the country under whose flag the vessel is sailing; and he shall deliver the same to the competent authorities, or to the persons who shall have been specially appointed for that purpose by the Government to whom such port shall belong.

4. No person whatever shall be taken out of the detained vessel; nor shall any part of her cargo, nor any of the slaves found on board, be removed from her, until after such vessel shall have been delivered over to the authorities of her own nation; unless the removal of the whole or part of the crew, or of the slaves found on board, shall be deemed necessary, either for the preservation of their lives, or from any other consideration of humanity, or for the safety of the persons who shall be charged with the navigation of the vessel after her detention. In any such case, the commander of the cruiser, or the officer appointed to bring in the detained vessel, shall make a declaration of such removal, in which he shall specify the reasons for the same; and the masters, sailors, passengers, or slaves so removed, shall be carried to the same port as the vessel and her cargo, and they shall be received in the same manner as the vessel, agreeably to the regulations hereinafter set forth.

Provided always, that nothing in this paragraph shall be understood as applying to slaves found on board of Austrian, Prussian, or Russian vessels.

[The foregoing, together with several other articles of instructions, describing the ports to which the vessels detained shall be sent for adjudication, according to the flag to which they belong, and the sea in which they may be captured, and also the forms of proceeding on arrival at those ports, were annexed to the foregoing treaty, and signed on the same day. The treaty having been signed by the five Powers, December 20, was ratified by four of the said Powers, and the ratifications were exchanged at London on the 19th of February; it being understood, that the protocol should be kept open for the ratification of France on any subsequent day.]

THE CALCULATING MACHINE.

THERE are few efforts of the mind more fatiguing, more irksome, dry, and monotonous, than the drudgery of making long calculations. The fixed and unceasing attention to a subject in itself devoid of in-

terest, when the slightest intrusion of thought or fancy destroys the work already done, and compels us to return our weary way, is enough to addle and stupify the brain. No wonder, then, that, from times immemorial, the ingenuity of man should have been directed to the discovery of some contrivance, whereby this wearisome labor might be lightened or abridged. Hence the invention of calculating instruments and mechanical aids of various kinds. This long-sought desideratum appears at length to have been obtained; but before we present to our readers some account of the latest attempts of this kind, we will take a rapid glance at the various endeavors previously made to accomplish the end in view, and which will place in a more conspicuous light the merits of this new invention.

The instruments hitherto contrived for assisting or abbreviating calculations may be classified as follow :

1. Such as supersede the mere setting down of figures, but require as close an application of the mind as common arithmetic. To this class belong the calculating boxes of the Russians and Chinese, where the figures are represented by balls moved by wires. Even the Romans possessed an instrument of this kind, called *Abacus*, in which the figures were indicated by buttons running in grooves.

2. To another class belong such instruments as are constructed on the following principle, viz. : Two long slender rules are divided into 100 equal parts, those parts being numbered from 0 to 100, and are thus used : If, for instance, it be desired to add 17 to 23, the rules must be so placed that the 0 of one shall be exactly opposite to 17 in the other, then by finding 23 on the first, you will have below it on the second, the number 40 as the result. If, on the contrary, you wish to subtract one number from another, as 13 from 30, the number 13 on one rule must be brought opposite to 30 on the other, and the 0 of the former you will find 17, the remainder. Such contrivances, being of very limited utility, and partaking more of the character of toys than of practical inventions, have long since sunk into oblivion. Instruments on this principle, some square, and others of a circular form, have been produced by Perrault, in 1720; Poetins, in 1728; Peregre in 1750; Prah! in 1789; Gruson in 1790; Guble in 1799, &c.

3. A third class of instruments for assisting calculators comprises the "*Virgulæ Napierinæ*," as likewise the other works of this celebrated Scotchman, namely, his "*Multiplicationis Promptuarium*" and his "*Abacus Arcalis*," in 1617, and his "*Rhabdologia*." In his footsteps followed Caspar Scott, 1620; Demeam, in 1731; Lordan, in 1798; Leopold, Pelit, and others.

4. Equally well known with the foregoing, is the calculating scale, so much used by the English in mechanics, which was invented by Michael Scheffelt, of Ulm, in 1699.

All the contrivances above enumerated, and others which we pass over in this brief sketch, do certainly diminish the labor of arithmetical calculations, more or less, but they all require the attention to be

fixed, and do not completely attain the object sought. Hence the aim of scientific men has been to invent an automaton, or self-acting instrument, for calculation, which alone can deserve the name of a calculating machine. The first attempt of this kind was made by Blaise Pascal, in 1640. His machine performed addition and subtraction mechanically; but it was so difficult to work, and the mechanism so imperfect, that it was soon discarded and forgotten. A similar destiny attended a machine for adding and subtracting, invented in England by Samuel Moreland, in 1673. His other mathematical instrument is nothing more than an adaptation of Napier's scale to circles for multiplication and division. The defects and insufficiency of these two inventions of Pascal and Moreland, gave rise to subsequent endeavors to improve them. Lepine in 1725, and Hillorin de Boistissandean in 1730, were not more successful than their predecessors; nor did Gerstein's invention, submitted to the Royal Society of London in 1735, afford any greater satisfaction.

In Italy, in 1709, Polenius tried his skill on a machine of this kind, but produced only a coarse unsightly abortion, incumbered with weights, that was far inferior to those which had preceded it. In all these cases the aim of the inventors was only to work addition and subtraction. Leibnitz sought to extend the operations of an arithmetical calculator to multiplication and division. The plan of his machine was submitted to the Royal Society of London in 1673, and met the approbation of the society. A similar honor attended it a short time afterwards from the Academy of Sciences at Paris. But, despite the approbation of those celebrated learned bodies, the plan which looked so promising on paper proved impracticable in execution. Leibnitz labored hard during his whole life to bring his scheme to perfection, expended vast sums upon it, and yet effected nothing. Death carried him off, and his work remained unfinished and forgotten. In 1727, Leopold promised to publish to the world the plan of a machine that should perform addition, subtraction, and multiplication. He died, leaving behind him only a few fragments of his plan. After this it seems that no further attempts were made for a long period, until, in the year 1799, a minister of Wirtemberg named Hahn, came forward with a new machine, which, however, attracted no attention, as it was found to commit serious errors in arithmetic; its internal structure remains unknown, as does also that of a faulty instrument presented to the Academy of Sciences in Gottingen, by Müller, 1786.

The machine invented by Mr. Thomas Colmer in 1820, was a retrograde step in this branch of science.

In the year 1821, Mr. Babbage of London undertook to construct a machine for Government, which should by mechanical means form tables of progression for the use of surveyors. A portion of this machine, forming a progression up to five figures, was complete; £17,000 had been expended upon it already, and to perfect the entire work would have required twice as much more; consequently, in 1833, the project was abandoned, and it is not probable that the costly machine will be brought to a perfect state.

The fragment or member alluded to may be seen at the inventor's. Mr. Babbage is at present occupied with the plan of a machine which is to perform mechanically all the operations of algebra. Already he has 30 plans extant. Every friend of science must heartily wish that the inventor may be more successful with his new project than he was with the previous one. We come now to speak of the recent successful attempt before alluded to. For the last two years, Dr. Roth, of Paris, has been engaged in the construction of arithmetical machines, and the success that has attended his efforts hitherto proves he has accomplished his scheme for performing automatically all the operations of arithmetic, from simple addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, to vulgar and decimal fractions, involution and evolution, arithmetical and geometrical progression, and the construction of logarithms, with ten plans of decimals. The machine in its present state works addition, subtraction, multiplication, and both kinds of progression, quite mechanically. In division alone the attention is required to avoid passing over the cipher. The arithmetical progression is of vast importance, as it operates from one furthing to millions of pounds sterling; and when we consider the variety and utility of the functions performed by a small instrument, not more than a foot wide, and its comparatively insignificant price, we cannot but congratulate the inventor on his decided success in the results hitherto obtained, and express our cordial wishes that he may meet with every encouragement to persevere in his highly interesting and important labors.

Mr. Wertheimber, the proprietor and patentee of this invention, has two descriptions of these machines: a larger one, which performs sums in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division; and a smaller, which performs addition and subtraction only. These machines have been submitted to the inspection of several gentlemen eminent for their scientific attainments, all of whom, particularly Mr. Babbage, have expressed the most unqualified admiration at their unparalleled ingenuity of construction. Mr. Wertheimber had the honor of an introduction to the Royal presence, at Windsor Castle, when both her Majesty and Prince Albert were graciously pleased to express their approbation of the machines, and to order two of each sort to be supplied for their use. — *London Paper*.

BARON NAPIER's invention, alluded to above, was curious and ingenious. He called the treatise in which he described it *Rhabdologia*, from the Greek $\rho\acute{\alpha}\beta\delta\omicron\varsigma$, a rod, because he used several small rods, or slips of card or metal, for tools in his processes.

The apparatus was merely intended to perform those parts of multiplication and division which are usually strictly mechanical and dependent on the memory. For these purposes it abridges considerably the ordinary processes; but Napier's subsequent invention of logarithms entirely superseded it for general use. We are not sure, however, but a set of the *rhabdoi* might even now prove at times very convenient.

The staves or rods are small slips, of any convenient size; the figures below are quite large enough. Each of these slips are arranged to show the nine first multiples of one of the nine digits. Care must be taken to separate the tens of the multiples from the units by a transverse line. Thus, in figure 1, below, the staff for 8 is represented. Its length, as will be seen, is divided into nine compartments, which, in their order, show the nine first multiples of 8, 8, 16, 24, &c.; the 1 and 6 which make up 16 being separated by the transverse line, and so of the figures denoting tens and units in the other multiples.

A number of these slips must be prepared, as we have said, for each digit; besides these, there will be needed one slip containing the digits themselves on its nine divisions. Figure 2 will serve to show what use is to be made of these different varieties.

8
1
8
16
24
32
40
48
56
64
72

Fig. 1.

1	1	2	9	6
2	0	0	1	1
3	0	0	2	1
4	0	0	3	2
5	0	1	4	3
6	0	1	5	3
7	0	1	6	4
8	0	1	7	4
9	0	1	8	5

Fig. 2.

We have supposed, in arranging it, that the number 1296 was to be the multiplicand in the proposed operation. For this purpose four of the slips of card, prepared for 1, for 2, for 9, and for 6, the digits making up this multiplicand must be placed side by side, as in the figure. The card containing the digits in their order must be placed next them. This arrangement makes a multiplication table which is precisely prepared for the proposed process. The row of figures in the second line of

the table will give 2,592, the duplicate of 1,296, care being taken to add the tens on each slip to the units on the next to the left, with which they are connected in the transverse column. Thus there are given by the table

$$\begin{aligned} & 2 \text{ thousands} \\ 4+1 &= 5 \text{ hundreds} \\ 8+1 &= 9 \text{ tens} \\ & \text{and 2 units, or 2,592 :} \end{aligned}$$

as will be readily perceived by a slight inspection of the figure. The third line will give the product of multiplication by three, and so of the others.

Suppose now that 3,456 is to be the multiplier in the operation to be performed. Instead of performing the multiplication by the separate digits of the multiplier, we have only to read off the products of such multiplication from the horizontal lines of the table, corresponding to them, and set them down as in the ordinary process, adjusting the tens on each card as we have directed above. Thus,

$$\begin{array}{r} 1,296 \times 6 \text{ will give } 7,776 \\ \text{" } \times 5 \text{ " " } 64,80 \\ \text{" } \times 4 \text{ " " } 518,4 \\ \text{" } \times 3 \text{ " " } 3,888 \\ \hline 4,478,976 \end{array}$$

The application to division will be readily seen. Suppose the product just obtained is to be divided by 1,296. The arrangement of the cards as above shows that the nine first multiples of that number are

1.	1,296	4,478,976	1,296
2.	2,592	3,868	3,456
3.	3,888	5,909	
4.	5,184	5,184	
5.	6,480	7,257	
6.	7,776	6,480	
7.	9,072	7,776	
8.	10,468	7,776	
9.	11,664	0	

The division, like the multiplication, being performed as usual; but the mechanical process of multiplication in the calculations being performed by the arrangement of the cards.

The kind of calculations where the instrument would be most likely to be of use, are those where the same multiplier or divider is to be constantly employed, as in calculations for the reduction of amounts given in one system of weights and measures into those of another. The cards can then be arranged once for all, and the amounts of the different parts of the process immediately transferred for use.

To prevent the inconvenience arising from the use of so many different slips of card, or metal, a French artist has made a very neat

arrangement, which gives the apparatus in a very convenient form. He places several small cylinders in a convenient case, parallel with each other, each of which has, on its surface, in nine several columns, the multiples of the nine digits, in the same way that they are arranged on the cards. These cylinders are each arranged to turn separately, so that they may be at once adapted for the operation, and remain fixed as they are wanted. The numbers of the several divisions are permanently fixed on the side of the case.

NEW INVENTION IN MACHINERY.

A LONDON journal gives the following description of a recent invention in Scotland. It is called an air engine, and is described as now working at the Dundee Foundry, a patent having been taken out for it. It is the joint invention of the Rev. Dr. Stirling, of Galston, and of his brother, Mr. Stirling, engineer, Dundee.

The principle of the invention consists in alternately heating and cooling two bodies of air confined in two separate vessels, which are so arranged, that by the strokes of two plungers, worked by the engine, the whole of the air contained in one of the vessels is sent to the lower end, immediately over the furnace, and is consequently made quite hot, while the whole of the air contained in the other vessel is at the same time transmitted to the upper end, which is cut off from any communication with the furnace, and is therefore comparatively cold.

The expansion caused by the heat renders the air in the one vessel alternately much more elastic than that in the other; and the two ends of the working cylinder, which is fitted with a piston similar to that of a steam engine, being respectively connected with the two air vessels, a preponderating pressure is produced, by turns, on each side of the piston, which is thereby pushed to the opposite end of the cylinder; and so, by the alternate action of the plungers in the two air vessels, it continues a reciprocating motion, and is applied to turn a crank in the same way that a steam engine does.

It has been satisfactorily shown that this engine may be worked with very great economy of fuel, as compared with a steam engine. The principal means of producing the saving is this: that of the heat which is communicated to the air from the furnaces, only a very small portion is entirely thrown away when it comes again to be cooled; for, by making the air, in its way from the hot to the cold end of the air-vessel, to pass through a chamber divided into a number of small apertures or passages, the great extent of surface with which it is thereby brought in contact, extracts from it in the first place, but only temporarily, the greater part of the heat; and afterwards restores it on the air on its passage back again from the cold to the hot end of the vessel. The

process of cooling is finally completed, by making the air pass through between a number of tubes in which there is a current of cold water, and thus far the heat cannot be made available again; but the portion which is abstracted in this way is very small.

As a sufficient expansive power could not be attained in so small a space without greater alterations of temperature from using air of the common density of the atmosphere, the air used is pretty highly compressed, and a much greater power is thereby obtained upon a given area of the piston.

A small air-pump, worked by the engine, is therefore necessary to keep up the air to the requisite density; but very little power is expended on this; all that is required of the pump, after the engine has been once charged, being to supply any loss of air that may arise from leakage, which is found to be very trifling.

The machine has been working occasionally for above six months, and it has been proved to be capable of performing advantageously the amount of work which the inventors had anticipated from their calculations and previous experiments. It has now for upwards of a month been driving all the machinery at the extensive engineering works of the Dundee foundry, which a steam-engine of approved construction had hitherto been employed to do; and it has been ascertained that the expenditure of fuel is, *cæteris paribus*, less than one-fifth part of what was required for the steam engine; but as considerable improvements are contemplated in some of the details, it is confidently expected that a much greater saving will eventually be effected.

The whole machine, including its furnaces and heating apparatus, stands in about the same space that a steam-engine of equal power would occupy without its furnaces and boiler. Taking into account the saving of space along with the vast economy of fuel, this invention must necessarily be of immense importance for all ordinary purposes requiring motive power. As an instance, it would reduce the expense of the power employed in driving machinery in Dundee alone by at least £25,000 or £30,000 a year. But, viewed in reference to the purposes of navigation, it must lead to results still more extraordinary, and will render a voyage to India round the Cape by machinery a matter of perfectly easy accomplishment.

IMPROVEMENT IN STEAM NAVIGATION.

We have heretofore given a description of the mode of applying steam power to navigation, by means of the Archimedean screw and Ericsson's propeller. The London Morning Post gives the following account of an experiment which was recently made in the Thames, of an approved mode of applying these improvements, in connexion

with the rotary engine. One great objection to their adaptation hitherto, the difficulty, (except by complicated gearing,) of getting up the necessary number of revolutions, appears to be entirely obviated by Mr. Beale, as from the description below, the propeller may be driven direct from the engine shaft, at a very great speed.

"The steam principle seems, moreover, to be very materially accelerated by the great improvements in the working of it. The rotatory engine, for instance, is calculated to bring about great results in connexion with the steam process. It is a wonderful simplification of the machinery now in use, and much less expensive. The difference in this respect is to be found, in perhaps equal degrees, with reference both to the works themselves and the consumption of fuel. It is not often that we, of the city department of the paper, find an opportunity of indulging in water excursions; but an opportunity being afforded us of witnessing the performances of the newly-constructed vessel called the 'Anti-John Scott Russell,' we passed an hour on board of her on the river, and certainly we have seldom experienced a higher gratification. This little model is 53 feet in length, by 6 feet in width. The paddle-wheels are 6 feet 5 inches in diameter, and they make from 60 to 70 revolutions per minute, propelling the boat at the unequalled, and we may say, for a small boat, unheard-of velocity, of at least 12 miles per hour. The engine is one of eight-horse power, 14 inches in diameter, and 9 1-2 inches in length. It is worked on the condensing principle, and makes 270 revolutions against 60 of the paddle wheel. The boat, we are informed, has been repeatedly tested during the last two months, and it appears that no difficulty whatever has occurred with the engine, which is in excellent working order. Mr. Beale tells us, that he has in a state of forwardness an engine constructed upon the same simple and beautiful principle, of sixty-horse power, intended for actual business. The model boat has been named after Mr. John Scott Russell, with the prefix of 'anti,' because that intelligent gentleman has very boldly and publicly asserted, that 'to make as effective a rotatory as an ordinary reciprocating steam-engine is impracticable.'

"The little craft shot like lightning through the water, and it were superfluous to add, that she attracted, in a singular degree, the attention of the seafaring persons she encountered on the river. The figure-head represents Mr. Beale taking what is called 'a sight,' and, if the skeptical Mr. Russell has not yet seen it, we hope he will lose no time in doing so. Where success is thus complete, the gilded *jeu d'esprit* is very pardonable, and, with all his misgivings about the rotatory principle, we venture to say that he will so consider it."

STEAMBOAT LITTLE WESTERN, ON THE THAMES.

A London journal gives the following description of the new steamer Little Western, and of an experimental trip on the Thames, which was attended by a number of officers of the navy, and other scientific gentlemen. She left her moorings off the Brunswick Hotel, at a quarter to 11; the tide then running down, and the wind blowing from the south-west. There was, however, but little wind, and the weather was clear and pleasant. She was accompanied down the river by one of the fastest boats, viz., the Railway, for which she waited off Galleons, and with which she contested head and head to Gravesend. The speed of the Little Western is extraordinary; she reached the Nore Light within 2 hours and 55 minutes from the time of starting, and returned to Blackwall within 2 hours and 25 minutes. The distance is 44 miles. This vessel is built on an improved principle. Her tonnage measurement is a fraction beyond 721 tons. She measures between perpendiculars 200 feet, measurement over all 216 feet. Her keel measurement is 195 feet. Her breadth, clear of her paddle-boxes, is rather above 27 feet; and her breadth over all exceeds 47 feet. Her deck is flush from stem to stern, and she has two masts. Her internal accommodations are very good, as may be surmised from the measurement of her saloon and cabins, &c. The length of her saloon is nearly 44 feet, and the room is elegantly and commodiously fitted up, without being gaudy or fantastic; it is also a good height, and is 24 feet wide. The ladies' cabin is nearly 20 feet long. The engines, which are horizontal and low pressure, are of 90-horse power each. Altogether she is a most elegant craft, and an admirable sea-boat. She has weathered a gale off the Land's-end, and proved her capability to contend against a rough sea and a heavy wind. This vessel was built at Bristol, by Messrs. Acramans, Morgan & Co. She is a vessel excellently adapted to the London and Ramsgate station. Her prodigious speed, superior accommodation, and tractability, render her peculiarly desirable for trips, in which convenience and rapidity are imperative.

 THE ARTESIAN WELL AT GRENELLE.

We have before called attention to this magnificent work of modern science, [Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 93.] It is with regret that we have seen recent announcements, that some difficulty has taken place in the work, in consequence of the leakage of the joints of the pipes. The following extract from a report of the French Academy will show the state in which the works at present are:

"A part of the accidents and difficulties at the Artesian well at Gre-

nelle, which have taken place in the course of the four or five months since these subterranean waters have been spouting up, have been made known to the public. But there is no end to these tribulations, and the definitive success of this great work is not altogether matter of certainty. M. Arago, at the late session of the Academy, gave a somewhat melancholy picture of the present state of that fountain, which has inspired such great hopes. The first system of interior pipes did not succeed, and the water filtered through the spaces, which were left between ends of the different pipes; and it was found necessary to draw up all these pipes, and endeavor to introduce one made in a single unbroken piece. The undertaking was great and bold; but it happened that from the impossibility of screwing this copper pipe to a part of the first tube, which remained fixed at the bottom of the well, the water again flowed on the outside as well as within the new pipe. The result was, therefore, the double flow of the water, without and within. The first, however, prevailing over the second, in consequence of the obstruction made by the gravel to the free passage of the water, the pipe became flattened in several parts, and twisted into the form of a corkscrew, so that now, neither the water nor the sounding-rod can pass into the centre of the tube, and it has as yet been found impossible, with the greatest effort, to draw up the tube from the ground, where it remains firmly fixed. From the great confidence, however, which is felt in the skill of the artist who superintends this work, assisted by the advice of the learned men by whom he is surrounded, no doubt seems to be entertained, that these new and powerful obstacles will be overcome, and that the city of Paris will reap the fruit of the sacrifices which she has made in this laborious undertaking."

It will be remembered that the well at Grenelle is undertaken by the city of Paris for the supply of water to one of the *abattoirs* or slaughter-markets of that metropolis.

CUTTING STONE BY MACHINERY.—PATENT IRON MASON.

A MACHINE under this name, (for which a patent has just been taken out,) is about to be erected in one of Mr. Nelson's quarries at Woodside, Glasgow. The stones go into the machine rough as they come from the quarryman's pick, and come out polished ashlar on the surface, and cut parallel and square on the sides, fully prepared for the builder, and this at an expense of not more than a fourth of work done by hand. The present machine is calculated to do the work of 250 men, reckoning only six hours' work out of every ten. The machine has been constructed by Messrs. P. W. M'Onie & Co., engineers, Scotland-street, Tradeston, the design and arrangements being the work of Mr. P. M'Onie, of that firm. We understand the machine, with the ex-

perimenting and patents, has cost £1,000, although new machines of the same size can now be made for one third of that sum, and smaller ones proportionably cheaper. — *Practical Mechanic*.

PHOTOGRAPHIC PORTRAITS.

A VERY desirable improvement, and one materially differing in its nature from all former steps in photographic art, has recently been introduced by an invention of Mr. Fox Talbot, for which a patent has been taken out. The improvement consists in the portraits being taken on paper, instead of on metallic plates, of their being indelible, of the extreme accuracy of likeness, the breadth of light and shadow, the general pictorial effect, and the capability of the portrait being multiplied into many copies or transcripts, or *facsimile* representations, without the sitter being required to sit for each portrait. They resemble sepia drawings, and are exceedingly true. The sitting requires but a minute, or two minutes, according to the brightness of the day. The paper is prepared with salts of silver, and subjected, by an apparatus furnished with glasses, to the rays of light, and the likeness is, as it were, absorbed by the paper. A description of this process cannot be conveyed very clearly in a written description; nor is it necessary that it should be, because it is easy for all who feel an interest in art to avail themselves of a personal inspection of the process by making a proper application to the artist. The process is called the "calotypic" process. It affords very curious evidence of the agency of light in effecting chemical changes, and it shows how science may be made subservient or auxiliary to the advancement of the fine arts. The portraits obtained by this invention may be placed in portfolios or suspended in frames as ornaments and reminiscences of friends and relatives; and the faithfulness of resemblance may be relied on. There is no distortion of feature, and none of that hardness, by which common photographic portraits are disfigured, and being on paper, defects may be amended by the pencil of the artist, and judicious additions introduced, by which a picture as well as a mere portrait may be secured. — *London Times*.

THE DEAD SEA.

At a recent sitting of the Academy of Science, at Paris, M. Arago read a communication from M. Rusiger, a German geologist, on certain geometrical observations made in order to ascertain the relative altitudes of the Dead Sea in Palestine, and the Mediterranean. It

appeared not only that the surface of the Dead Sea was 219 toises, or about 1,314 English feet, lower than that of the Mediterranean, but also, from the geological phenomena observed on its shores, that the formation of the basin in which it lies was antecedent to all historic epochs. Hence the supposition that the sea was formed by the sinking of the plain on which the cities of the Pentapolis, (Sodom, Gomorrah, &c.) were situated, is incorrect. M. Arago added, that the observations of M. Berto, a French engineer, made the depression of the Dead Sea below the Mediterranean 419 metres, or 1,374 English feet.

IMPROVEMENT IN THE ARMAMENT OF SHIPS.

A CORRESPONDENT of a London journal describes, and recommends for adoption, the following improvement in the armament of American ships :

A few months ago, being in the United States, through the kindness of an officer of the American navy, I had an opportunity of going on board the line-of-battle ship, Delaware. She certainly is a noble ship ; but our Rodney, London, and Nile, are quite equal to her, and I think, in some respects, superior. The medium guns on their quarter decks would be much more effective than her carronades. But I was much struck with the manner of placing their shell-guns, which are 10-inch ; instead of being in the mid-ships, as in our vessels, they are fore and aft, four in the bow and four in the stern, on the gun and main decks, and by means of railways may be transferred from the broadside to the bow or stern, and back again immediately. The great advantage of this plan over ours must be obvious at first sight. In a general action, how often have ships been exposed to a severe raking fire, without being able to return it effectually ! But by the American plan they would be able to bring their formidable Paixhans to bear on an enemy in a few minutes, which would settle the matter much sooner than a few 32-pounders. As steamers will play an important part in all future naval warfare, the necessity of a ship being able to bring her Paixhan guns to bear at any point is obvious. Suppose one of our frigates chased by several steamers, and exposed to a continual fire of shells, without being able to return any, her speedy capture or destruction is inevitable ; for it is well known that a solid shot does little harm compared with shells. We have borrowed the principle of shell-guns from the French, and I hope we are not too proud to learn a better method of using them from the Yankees.— *United Service Magazine.*

CHRONOLOGY.

LONDON, Feb. 19. The ratifications of the different Powers which accede to the quintuple treaty, [see p. 180.] were exchanged. The French Government, however, had declined to ratify the treaty, in consequence of objections to it which had been raised in the Chamber of Deputies.

LONDON, March 11. Sir Robert Peel introduced his new revenue plan, which from its extent and boldness excited the greatest attention and interest. He began his speech by a statement of the existing revenue compared with the expenditures. He assumed the estimate of revenue for the year ending April 1843, at £48,350,000, and of expenditure at £50,819,000, leaving a deficiency of £2,469,000, beside a farther outlay demanded for the increased expenses of the war in China, which he estimated at not less than £900,000. The deficiency of the last five years, together with that of the current year to April, 1843, he estimated at £10,072,000.

He proceeded next to consider the mode in which this deficiency should be supplied. He rejected the idea of supplying it by contracting fresh debts, and also of laying farther taxes on articles of consumption, and came to the conclusion of relying chiefly on a direct tax on all incomes from land or any other source, where the amount of income accruing to each proprietor amounts to £150 a year or over. All incomes of less than that amount are to be exempt from the tax. The proposed rate of tax is 7d. on a pound, or nearly 3 per cent., and it is to be continued for three years, after which period it is hoped that the other revenues will be so far recruited by the ameliorations introduced, as to render the farther continuance of the direct tax unnecessary.

This tax is computed to produce £3,771,000 per annum, of which it is estimated £1,600,000 will be derived from rents, £150,000 from the profits by tenants of lands occupied, £646,000 on capital in the public funds, £1,220,000 on profits of trades and professions, and £155,000 on the incomes of all public officers, estimated at £700,000 annually, deducting in

each case from the estimated aggregate of income, one-fourth for incomes less than £151. He proposed also some increase on two or three other taxes, estimated to produce in all the additional sum of £610,000. Among these new taxes is an increased duty on spirits and stamps in Ireland, and an export duty of 4s. per ton on coal exported in national, as well as foreign ships. This last-named duty having been before limited only to exports in foreign ships, and removed also from those in all cases where treaties existed, adopting the principle of reciprocity, had become almost unproductive. With these accessions, the whole increase of income is estimated at £4,310,000, making a considerable surplus over the estimated expenditure. Sir Robert proceeded next to consider what disposition should be made of this surplus, in a manner most conducive to the public interests, and most consonant with public feeling and opinion. The mode in which he proposed to do this was, "by making great improvements in the commercial tariff of England," and abating the duties on some great articles of consumption. He said that in looking at the tariff he found it embraced not less than 1,200 articles, subject to various rates of duty. Each article had been subject to the most careful consideration of himself and his colleagues, and they proposed to make a complete review, and a great alteration of the tariff on general principles. He proposed first, to remove all prohibition. Next, to reduce the duty on raw materials to a great extent, leaving it in some cases merely nominal, for the purpose of statistical more than revenue objects, and in no case, or scarcely any, exceeding 5 per cent. on raw materials. Then on articles partly manufactured, to reduce the duty so that it shall not exceed 12 per cent; and articles wholly manufactured, not to exceed 20 per cent.; specific exceptions being made to these general principles.

He said they had arranged the whole tariff under twenty heads, the first embracing living animals, and articles of food; the second spices; the third seeds;

the fourth, wood for furniture; the fifth, ores and other materials, for manufactures, &c. &c. This was the schedule above referred to. He said, that of 1,200 articles, they proposed to reduce the duty on 750, including all those which enter into manufactures as chief constituent materials. There remained about 450 articles, on which it did not appear necessary for the interests of commerce, or of consumers, to make any reduction of duty. There were other important articles, on which no reduction had been proposed, partly from considerations affecting the revenue exclusively, and partly on account of negotiations pending with many States in reference to commercial treaties, in which modifications of the tariff might be made for the reciprocal benefit of the negotiating parties. He alluded to the negotiations with several countries, and particularly to that with France, which had been nearly completed by his predecessor, and which he wished had been carried into effect, firmly believing that France and England would morally as well as physically have derived the greatest benefit from it. He was of opinion that there was an opportunity of materially benefitting the trade and industry of both countries by a relaxation of the duties, would the prejudices of the French people admit of it. While those treaties were pending, he would not recommend any material reduction in the duties on a number of articles, but reserved them to form the bases of negotiation, and as the means of obtaining corresponding relaxations in the tariffs of other countries. On this footing he considered the duty on French brandy and wines, and on various fruits. It was proposed that the change should take effect from the 5th of the present month of April.

The articles on which the greatest reductions of duty are proposed, are coffee and timber. The duty on coffee from foreign countries is proposed to be reduced from 1s. 3d. per lb. to 8d., and on that produced in British colonies, from 9d. to 4d.; and on timber, the very material reduction is made to £1 15s. for the first year, and £1 10s. subsequently, per load of 50 cubic feet, on deals, boards, staves, and other timber, sawed or split, when imported from foreign countries, and 2s. when from British possessions; and on other timber, £1 10s. the first year, and £1 5s. subsequently from foreign countries, and 1s. from British possessions. The reduction on coffee, it is computed,

will occasion a loss to the revenue of £170,000 per annum, and that on timber a loss of £600,000. These and other reductions, it is computed, will reduce the income in all £1,210,000. Many articles heretofore prohibited will now be admitted at rates of duty which will encourage their import. Among these are cattle, sheep, swine, fish, fresh beef, and pork. On a long list of articles the duty is reduced from rates which amounted to a prohibition, to such rates as will admit of a profitable trade. These will, of course, become a source of income to the treasury.

The proposed duty on beef and pork, fresh or salted, from foreign countries, is 8s. per cwt.; on butter, 20s.; cheese, 10s.; lard, 2s.; bacon and hams of all kinds, 14s.; rice, 5s.; rough do., 8s. per quarter; fish, cured, 2s.; horses and oxen, 20s. each; cows, 15s.; calves, 10s.; sheep, 3s.; swine, 5s.; hides, dry, 2s.; wet, 1s. per cwt.; tar, 6s. per last of 12 barrels; turpentine, cwt. 1s.; hemp, dressed, cwt. 4s.; tobacco, unmanufactured, lb. 3s.

March 18. The electrical eel at the Royal Adelaide Gallery died on Monday morning. It was well known to all the visitors. It had been ill for a week, but it was not until Thursday last, that there was any striking difference observable. It became very inactive, and this inactivity increased to torpor. The cause of its death was mortification. It was brought to this country from one of the many tributary streams of the river Amazon, about four years ago, and was the only one of its kind in Europe.

LONDON, March 30. NOTE OF LORD ABERDEEN to Mr. Everett, Minister Plenipotentiary of the U. States, in reply to the letter of Mr. Stevenson, on the subject of the search of vessels under the American flag, suspected of participation in the slave trade.

"The undersigned, &c. has the honor of addressing Mr. Everett, &c., the observations which he feels called upon to make in answer to the note of Mr. Stevenson, dated on the 21st of October.

"As that communication only reached the hands of the undersigned on the day after the departure of Mr. Stevenson from London, on his return to America, and as there has since been no Minister or Chargé d'Affairs from the United States resident in this country, the undersigned has looked with some anxiety for the arrival of Mr. Everett, in order that

he might be enabled to renew his diplomatic intercourse with an accredited representative of the Republic. Had the undersigned entertained no other purpose than to controvert the arguments of Mr. Stevenson, or to fortify his own, in treating of the matter which has formed the subject of their correspondence, he would have experienced little impatience; but as it is his desire to clear up doubt and to remove misapprehension, he feels that he cannot too early avail himself of the presence of Mr. Everett at his post, to bring to his knowledge the true state of the question at issue.

"The undersigned agrees with Mr. Stevenson in the importance of arriving at a clear understanding of the matter really in dispute. This ought to be the first object in the differences of states, as well as of individuals; and, happily, it is often the first step to the reconciliation of the parties. In the present case, this understanding is doubly essential, because a continuance of mistake and error may be productive of the most serious consequences.

"Mr. Stevenson persists in contending, that the British Government assert a right which is equivalent to the claim of searching American vessels in time of peace. In proof of this, Mr. Stevenson refers to a passage in a former note of Viscount Palmerston, addressed to himself, against which he strongly protests, and the doctrine contained in which he says the undersigned is understood to affirm.

"Now, it is not the intention of the undersigned to inquire into the precise import and force of the expressions of Viscount Palmerston. These might have been easily explained to Mr. Stevenson, by their author, at the time they were written; but the undersigned must request that his doctrines upon this subject, and those of the Government of which he is the organ, may be judged of exclusively from his own declarations.

"The undersigned again renounces, as he has already done, in the most explicit terms, any right on the part of the British Government, to search American vessels in time of peace. The right of search, except when specially conceded by treaty, is a purely belligerent right, and can have no existence on the high seas during peace. The undersigned apprehends, however, that the right of search is not confined to the verification of the nationality of the vessel, but also extends to the object of the voyage and the nature of

the cargo. The sole purpose of the British cruisers is to ascertain whether the vessels they meet with are really American or not. The right asserted has, in truth, no resemblance to the right of search, either in principle or practice. It is simply a right to satisfy the party who has a legitimate interest in knowing the truth that the vessel is what her colors announce. This right we concede as freely as we exercise. The British cruisers are not instructed to detain American vessels under any circumstances whatever; on the contrary, they are ordered to abstain from all interference with them, be they slavers or otherwise. But, where reasonable suspicion exists that the American flag has been abused for the purpose of covering the vessel of another nation, it would appear scarcely credible, had it not been made manifest by the repeated protestations of their representative, that the Government of the United States, which has stigmatized and abolished the trade itself, should object to the adoption of such means as are indispensably necessary for ascertaining the truth.

"The undersigned had contended, in his former note, that the legitimate inference from the arguments of Mr. Stevenson would practically extend even to the sanction of piracy, when the persons engaged in it should think fit to shelter themselves under the flag of the United States. Mr. Stevenson observes that this is a misapprehension on the part of the undersigned; and he declares, that in denying the right of interfering with vessels under the American flag, he intended to limit his objection to vessels bona fide American, and not to those belonging to nations who might fraudulently have assumed the flag of the United States. But it appears to the undersigned, that his former statement is by no means satisfactorily controverted by the declaration of Mr. Stevenson. How is this bona fide to be proved? Must not Mr. Stevenson either be prepared to maintain that the flag alone is sufficient evidence of the nationality of the vessel, which, in the face of his own repeated admissions, he cannot do, or must he not confess that the application of his arguments would really afford protection to every lawless and piratical enterprise?

"The undersigned had also expressed his belief, that the practice was general of ascertaining, by visit, the real character of any vessel on the high seas, against which there should exist reasonable

ground of suspicion. Mr. Stevenson denies this, and he asks what other nation than Great Britain has ever asserted or attempted to exercise such a right. In answer to the question, the undersigned can at once refer to the avowed and constant practice of the United States, whose cruisers, especially in the Gulf of Mexico, by the admission of their public journals, are notoriously in the habit of examining all suspicious vessels, whether sailing under the English flag or any other. In whose eyes are these vessels suspicious? Doubtless in those of the commanders of the American cruisers. But, in truth, this right is quite as important to the United States as to Great Britain; nor is it easy to conceive how the maritime intercourse of mankind could be safely carried on without such a check.

"It can scarcely be necessary to remind Mr. Everett, that the right thus claimed by Great Britain is not exercised for any selfish purpose. It is asserted in the interest of humanity, and in mitigation of the sufferings of our fellow men. The object has met with the concurrence of the whole civilized world, including the United States of America, and it ought to receive universal assistance and support.

"The undersigned cannot abstain here from referring to the conduct of an honorable and zealous officer, commanding the naval force of the United States on the coast of Africa, who, relying on the sincere desire of his government for the suppression of the slave trade, and sensible of the abuse of the American flag, entered into an engagement on the 11th of March, 1840, with the officers in command of her Majesty's cruisers on the same station, by which they mutually requested each other, and agreed to detain all vessels under American colors employed in the traffic. If found to be American property, such vessels were to be delivered over to the commander of an American cruiser on the station; or, if belonging to other nations, they were to be dealt with according to the treaties contracted by her Majesty with the respective states. The undersigned believes, and, indeed, after the statements of Mr. Stevenson, he regrets to be unable to doubt, that the conduct of this gallant officer, however natural and laudable in its object, has been disavowed by his government.

"It is not the intention of the undersigned, at present, to advocate the justice and propriety of the mutual right of search, as conceded and regulated by

treaty; or to weigh the reasons on account of which this proposal has been rejected by the Government of the United States. He took occasion in a former letter to observe, that concessions, sanctioned by Great Britain and France, were not likely to be incompatible with the dignity and independence of any other state which should be disposed to follow their example. But the undersigned begs now to inform Mr. Everett, that he has this day concluded a joint treaty with France, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, by which the mutual right of search, within certain latitude, is fully and effectually established for ever. This is, in truth, a holy alliance, in which the undersigned would have rejoiced to see the United States assume their proper place among the great powers of Christendom, foremost in power, wealth, and civilization, and connected together in the cause of mercy and justice.

"It is undoubtedly true, that this right may be abused, like any other which is delegated to many and different hands. It is possible that it may be exercised wantonly and vexatiously; and should this be the case, it would not only call for reprimand, but would justify resentment. This, however, is in the highest degree improbable; and if, in spite of the utmost caution, an error should be committed, and any American vessel should suffer loss or injury, it would be followed by prompt and ample reparation. The undersigned begs to repeat that, with American vessels, whatever be their destination, British cruisers have no pretension in any manner to interfere. Such vessels must be permitted, if engaged in it, to enjoy a monopoly of this unhallowed trade; but the British Government will never endure that the fraudulent use of the American flag shall extend the iniquity to other nations, by whom it is abhorred, and who have entered into solemn treaties with this country for its entire suppression.

"In order to prove to Mr. Everett the anxiety of her Majesty's government to prevent all reasonable ground of complaint, the undersigned believes that he cannot do better than to communicate to him the substance of those instructions, under which the British cruisers act, in relation to American vessels, when employed on this service.

"If, from the intelligence which the officer commanding her Majesty's cruiser may have received, or from the mancu-

vres of the vessel or from other sufficient cause, he shall have reason to believe, that, although bearing the American flag, the vessel does not belong to the United States, he is ordered, if the state of the wind and weather shall admit of it, to go ahead of the suspected vessel, after communicating his intention by hailing, and to drop a boat on board of her to ascertain her nationality, without detaining her if she shall prove to be really an American vessel. But, should this mode of visiting the vessel be impracticable, he is to require her to be brought to for this purpose. The officer who boards the vessel is merely to satisfy himself of her nationality, by her papers or other proofs, and, should she really be an American vessel, he will immediately quit her, offering, with consent of her commander, to note on her papers the cause of suspecting her nationality, and the number of minutes she was detained, (if detained at all,) for the object in question. All the particulars are to be immediately entered into the log-book of the cruiser, and a full statement of them to be sent by the first opportunity direct to England.

"These are the precautions taken by her Majesty's Government against the occurrence of abuse in the performance of this service; and they are ready to adopt any others which they may think more effectual for the purpose, and which shall, at the same time, be consistent with the attainment of the main object in view.

"Mr. Stevenson has said, that he had no wish to exempt the fraudulent use of the American flag from detection, and this being the case, the undersigned is unwilling to believe that a Government like that of the United States, professing the same object, and animated by the same motives as Great Britain, should seriously oppose themselves to every possible mode by which their own desire could be really accomplished.

"Foreign Office, Dec. 20, 1841."

PERU AND BOLIVIA. We have not for some months published any details of the disorders now wasting these unhappy republics. After the suppression of the revolution of Vivanco, (*Mon. Chron.* Vol. II. p. 325.) the exertions of Santa Cruz in the northern provinces also proved unsuccessful, and he attempted to retire into Bolivia, with a view of raising that republic against Gamarra in Peru.

Gamarra did not hesitate to undertake a campaign against the feeble state of Bo-

livia. He took with him General Ballivan, an exile from that republic, whose pretensions to the Presidency he intended to support in opposition to those of Santa Cruz. The Bolivians, alarmed at his approach, invited Ballivan to assume the reins of government, which he did, and immediately turned his arms against his law friend and protector.

Soon after, Ballivan, at the head of four thousand men, by a forced march got into the rear of Gamarra, — that is, between him and Peru, — attacked him by surprise, and between treachery and panic the Peruvians were speedily put to the rout, with a loss of 500 killed, 322 wounded, and some 3,000 prisoners. Gamarra was shot by his own troops, and buried on the field of battle by Ballivan. The loss of the Bolivians was trifling.

After this Ballivan invaded Peru in turn, and rapidly gained possession of the southern provinces.

In the meantime Santa Cruz had departed from Guayaquil in an English merchant vessel, and effected a landing on the coast of Bolivia, whence he advanced to Cobija, the only seaport of that republic, but finding it in possession of the Peruvians, he fled again to Guayaquil, where he remained when last heard from. Subsequently the Peruvians abandoned Cobija.

CHRISTIANA, (Norway.) Feb. 25. The royal speech at the opening of the Storting, was read by the Rigt Statholder of Norway, and it left nothing to regret but the absence of the king. We are aware, that this absence is to be attributed only to the rare phenomenon which has this year deprived us of sleighing, by driving away to the south of France, and even to Algeria, the masses of snow which should naturally have fallen among us. We know, also, that the king is as much disappointed as we. The exposition of the administration of the kingdom affords proofs of the regular progressive prosperity which the last royal discourse promised us. In the front of the happy results of the constant solicitude of the government, is what concerns the public instruction. The number of schools of every kind is increased; an institution has been specially designed for furnishing masters for all the schools; funds are provided for rewarding the discovery of the best modes of instruction, and for printing scientific and classical books. The ecclesiastical chest, destined

to defray the expense of the instruction of the people, and the encouragement of agriculture, possessed at the end of 1840 a sum of 1,320,000 specie rix dollars.

The increase of commerce, navigation, and various branches of industry, affords results not less satisfactory. The export of herring amounted to an average, in the 3 last years, of 779,000 tons; that of fish oil, 41,000; that of planks exceeded 260,000 lasts per annum. The number of vessels from foreign ports in 1839 was 7,332, and in 1840, 7,707. The value of houses insured against fire has progressively increased from 17,000,000 to 26,000,000 dollars. The mine of Konigsberg continues to enrich the state to the amount of 200,000 specie dollars per annum. The public debt amounts at the present time to only 2,800,000 specie dollars, and the state has 2,000,000 on hand, or to its credit. We are on the point of being able to liquidate the whole of our public debt, and meet the expenses of the state for the ensuing three years, without the necessity of reestablishing the land tax, from which we have been exempt since 1836.

NEW GRENADA, March 1. Under this date President Herran announces, that the recent rebellions are at an end, and that tranquillity is restored. Obando [see Mon. Chron. Vol. 11. p. 466] was some time since defeated in the southwest, and President Herran's operations against the rebels on the northern seacoast have at length proved successful. We infer, however, that he does not intend to include Panama among the provinces reconciled to the central government.

PARIS, March 20. **THE FRENCH COINAGE.** The silver pieces of 15 and 30 sous, those of six liards, and those of two sous bearing the letter N, (coined in the Hundred Days,) and the copper and bell-metal pieces of one and two liards, of one and five centimes, and of one decime, (two sous,) are to be called in. The latter are to be replaced by a bronze coin, composed of copper and alloy, of one, two, and five centimes, and one decime each. The bronze money about to be issued will amount to 40,000,000 of francs. The silver pieces of 25 centimes (five sous,) are to be likewise withdrawn from circulation, and pieces of 20 centimes to be substituted in their stead. This operation will cost the state, according to the Ministerial valuation, a sum of 13,703,060 francs.

BREXIN, March 21. The Prussian State Gazette gives the following statistical

table of the quantity of raw iron annually produced in Europe: Great Britain, 29,632,000 quintals; France, 6,763,900; Russia, including the Ural Provinces, 3,820,000; Belgium, 2,917,350; that part of Germany comprehended in the Customs' Union, 2,550,762; the part not included in the Union, 143,500; Austrian monarchy, 1,820,000; Sweden, 1,455,245; Sardinia, 245,000; Tuscany, 120,000; Parma, 28,000; Modena and Naples, 15,000; Spain, 250,000; Poland, 184,000; Norway, 107,420; Luxembourg, 60,000; Switzerland, 14,000; Portugal, 8,400. The bar iron taken immediately from the mines may be estimated at 236,565 quintals.

TEXAS. Since the publication of the last Number of the Chronicle, intelligence has been received of a Mexican invasion of Texas, which has excited great interest in the southwestern States. Accounts of the numbers of the Mexican force vary greatly, from 2 to 20,000 men. There seems to be a full determination, however, on the part of the Government of Texas, to raise as large a force as possible to defend the country, and retaliate by attacking Mexico. Considerable bodies of volunteers have gathered in the southwestern States for the assistance of the Texans.

DOMESTIC.

RHODE ISLAND. The Constitution prepared for this state by the regular authority having been rejected by a small majority of the people, (Mon. Chron. Vol. 111. p. 145,) the government still existed under the old form, and the friends of the "Suffrage" or "People's" Constitution felt emboldened to proceed farther in their measures. It must be understood, that on the question of the acceptance of the authorized State Constitution, which, as we have said, was rejected, all persons were permitted to vote, who would be voters under its provisions, that is, all white male citizens of the United States, who should have resided two years in Rhode Island. This constitution had been rejected by the votes of the supporters of the unauthorized constitution, of those who thought blacks should vote, and also of such of the adherents to the old charter form of government as were opposed to any change.

On the rejection of this instrument, and as the period appointed by the Suffrage Constitution for the election approached,

the General Assembly resolved on decisive measures for sustaining the legal authority. They passed a series of resolutions declaring their purpose to maintain the existing constitution and laws, and passed an act, declaring it a misdemeanor, punishable with fine and imprisonment, to serve as presiding officer or clerk of any town or ward meeting for the choice of officers under the pretended constitution, and still heavier penalties for consenting to be a candidate for office under the said constitution. To accept and to attempt to exercise the functions of office under the said constitution, was declared to be treason, punishable by imprisonment for life.

In accordance with one of these resolutions of the General Assembly, Gov. King, on the 4th of April, issued a proclamation admonishing all faithful citizens to yield no allegiance to the pretended authority of the other new constitution, and enjoining on all officers of the state to be firm and vigilant in detecting and bringing to punishment all persons concerned in attempting to carry it into effect.

In order to have a sufficient force in preparation for the enforcement of the requisitions of this proclamation, general orders were issued the same day, calling on the members of all the chartered military companies in the State to be ready for service at thirty minutes' warning.

The leaders of the so called "Suffrage Constitution" party, paid little heed to these documents, but nominated a ticket for their election on the 18th, and occupied themselves in procuring pledges and drilling troops for the support of their constitution.

Both parties sent messengers to Washington, calling for the interference of the General Government. In reply, the President addressed an official letter to Governor King, in which he informs the Governor of Rhode Island, that in any interposition in which he may be called on to make between the Government of a State, and any portion of its citizens who may assail it with violence, or may be in actual insurrection against it, he can only look to the Constitution and laws of the United States, which plainly declare the obligations of the Executive Department, and leave it no alternative as to the course it shall pursue.

He quotes the provision of the constitution which makes it the duty of the United States to guaranty to every State in

the Union a republican form of government, and to protect each of them against invasion, and against domestic violence. He quotes also the acts of Congress of Feb. 23, 1795, and March 3, 1807, which prescribe the duties of the President of the United States, in case of "an insurrection in any State against the government thereof." He then proceeds to state the view which he takes of his duty in the present exigency, and in such as has been apprehended may occur, of actual insurrection against the government of Rhode Island, in the following terms:

"By a careful consideration of the above recited acts of Congress, your Excellency will not fail to see, that no power is vested in the Executive of the United States to anticipate insurrectionary movements against the government of Rhode Island, so as to sanction the interposition of the military authority; but that there must be an actual insurrection manifested by lawless assemblages of the people or otherwise, to whom a proclamation may be addressed, and who may be required to betake themselves to their respective abodes. I have, however, to assure your Excellency, that should the time arrive, and my fervent prayer is that it may never come, when an insurrection shall exist against the Government of Rhode Island, and a requisition shall be made upon the Executive of the United States, to furnish that protection which is guaranteed to each State by the Constitution and laws, I shall not be found to shrink from the performance of a duty, which, while it would be the most painful, is at the same time the most imperative. I have also to say, that in such a contingency, the Executive could not look into real or supposed defects of the existing government, in order to ascertain whether some other plan of government proposed for adoption was better suited to the wants and more in accordance with the wishes of any portion of her citizens. To throw the Executive power of this government into any such controversy, would be to make the President the armed arbitrator between the people of the different States and their constituted authorities, and might lead to an usurped power, dangerous alike to the stability of the State Governments and the liberties of the people. It will be my duty, on the contrary, to respect the requisitions of that government which has been recognized as the existing Government of the State through all time past, until I shall be advised in

regular manner, that it has been altered and abolished and other substituted in its place, by legal and peaceable proceedings, adopted and pursued by the authorities and people of the State."

The President proceeds to express his conviction, that no contingency will arise which will render the interference of the National Government necessary, and that the people of Rhode Island, so long distinguished for their love of order, will not rush into revolution for the redress of grievances, real or supposed.

This decision of the General Government, in which, as it appeared, the whole Cabinet concurred, somewhat damped the ardor of the great mass of the "Suffrage" party. Several of their candidates declined serving on their ticket, which had been made up with some difficulty in the first instance, as there were few prominent men who cared to make themselves more prominent by assuming the danger and responsibility as well as the fame of attaching themselves to a revolutionary movement of this nature.

The election under this new instrument was held, however, on the 18th of April. Although the right of suffrage, which it grants is almost unlimited, and although the number of votes given for it when proposed for adoption was said to be more than 12,000, [Mon. Chron. Vol. III. p. 46.] little more than half that number (6,359) voted under it at its first election.

Two days after, on the 20th, the regular election under the charter being held, 7,080 persons voted, Governor King being reelected by a decided majority. The return of this number of votes of persons who still recognized the charter as the supreme law, shows, in comparison with the vote first mentioned, a decided majority against the revolution-born constitution; particularly as the charter admits but a limited right of suffrage.

These are the latest movements; there are, of course, two sets of officers elect of Rhode Island.

RICHMOND, (Va.) March 26. The Legislature adjourned sine die, after passing 224 acts. It had refused to receive the share of the proceeds of the public lands, which, under the distribution law would fall to the state. It left the State finances in some confusion, but passed, notwithstanding, a bill, granting a loan of \$250,000, of six per cent. State stock, to the James River and Kanawha Company, to enable them to pay off their temporary

loans and post notes, and to redeem their pledged bonds, on a pledge of all the resources of the Company.

ROCHESTER, (N. Y.) March 31. James Sheridan Hogan, supposed to have been engaged in the attack on the steamboat *Caroline*, [see Mon. Chr. Vol. III. p. 142,] having again crossed the frontier, was, a second time arrested and subjected to examination, on a charge of participation in causing the death of Amos Durfee. After an examination before the proper authorities, he was discharged, on the 5th of April, for want of testimony to justify his detention.

It was understood that the object of his visit was a love affair; that he is engaged to be married in June next, to a young lady on the American side of the lines.

WASHINGTON, (D. C.) April 4. Lord Ashburton, the special British Minister, who has been expected for some weeks, arrived and took possession of the residence provided for him. The *Warspite* frigate, in which his Lordship crossed the Atlantic, arrived at Annapolis on the 2d, after a passage of 45 days from the Isle of Wight.

On the 5th, Lord Ashburton called at the Department of State, and on the 6th he was presented to the President, and delivered his official letter from the Queen. He entered at once upon the business of the mission, spending three hours with the Secretary of State on the 6th.

April 5. The new steam frigate *Mississippi* arrived at the Navy Yard. The *Missouri* and *Mississippi* sailed from New York on the 1st. The distance by water between the two cities is about 600 miles. The *Missouri* in going up the Potomac, by an error of the pilot, ran aground. Every effort was immediately made to get her off, and in the course of these exertions, the launch and life-boat were sent out lashed together with an anchor and sixty fathoms of heavy chain, for the purpose of heaving her off. Unfortunately, as they were preparing to drop anchor, the chain cable broke loose from its stoppers, and carried two boats down with it. Lieutenant Borden, with seventeen persons of the crews of these boats, was unfortunately lost; several of them being severely injured by the chain, and this number being drowned before they could receive assistance. Eleven others were saved by boats from the frigate. The vessel was got afloat on the 7th, without injury, after lightening her, and by the

assistance of the Mississippi in towing her off the bank.

HARTFORD, April 4. The State election took place this day. Governor Ellsworth was the Whig candidate for reelection, and Chauncey F. Cleveland was the Democratic candidate. There were also two other candidates, one supported by a small party called Conservatives, and the other by abolitionists. There was no choice of Governor, but the highest number of votes was obtained by Mr. Cleveland, and nearly sufficient to make a choice. The Democratic party obtained a majority of members, in both branches of the legislature. In many towns, in consequence of the large number of votes given by persons supporting a third, and even a fourth party, there was no choice of Representatives.

NEW YORK, April 12. The charter election in this city resulted in the re-election of Robert H. Morris as Mayor, by nearly 2,000 majority over Mr. Phoenix, the Whig candidate. In the Common Council, nine Whigs and eight Democrats were chosen to each board.

In Albany, the election was held on the same day. Dr. Staats, the Democratic candidate, was chosen by 2,861 votes, over Mr. Townshend, who had 2,262. In the Board of Aldermen, 11 Democrats and 9 Whigs were chosen.

ALBANY, April 12. The Legislature of New York adjourned after a session of 98 days, in which it passed 323 laws. The act of greatest general interest was that imposing a tax to meet the interest of the State debt, and stopping all farther operations in the construction of the public works of internal improvement. There will be an extra session in August.

COLUMBIA, (S. C.) April 12. A devastating fire broke out this morning, at 1 o'clock, and burned until daylight, consuming the most beautiful and the principal business part of Columbia. Twenty-nine stores and dwellings, with numerous out-buildings, are in ruins. The loss in buildings and goods cannot fall much short of \$200,000.

SAG HARBOR, (L. I.) April 14. The Havre packet Louis Philippe went on shore and was entirely lost. She had on board a hundred passengers, all of whom with the crew were saved.

BALTIMORE, April 14. The new and splendid steamboat Medora, which was just finished, was to make a trial excursion from Baltimore on this day. About

one hundred persons were on board by invitation of the directors, the day being fine, and a pleasant trip anticipated. The engine had not, however, made its second revolution in backing the boat from the wharf, when the boiler exploded with great noise, carrying with it a considerable portion of the upper deck, and throwing the smoke stacks into the air. The main force of the explosion was almost exclusively toward the head of the boat, and the portions of the boat around the boiler were torn to pieces. The boiler itself, an immense one of iron, was thrown crosswise on the deck.

The boat was instantly enveloped in a cloud of scalding steam, which was inhaled by some with fatal consequences, while others suffered externally in their persons from its effects. Our informant was in the after part of the boat, where the steam had no injurious effect. He states that several persons jumped overboard, and that one of them was drowned. The boat immediately settled in the water until her hull rested on the bottom of the river.

In the centre and forward part of the boat, there was a fearful destruction of life and limb. Some of those on board were blown high in the air, and fell on shore, in the water, and on the boats lying near by. Others were crushed with the splintered timbers; others scalded with the steam; while those below the decks, not having time to escape, were either suffocated by the steam, or drowned when the boat sunk.

Twenty-three persons were killed, or died shortly afterwards of their wounds, and many more were severely wounded and scalded, some of them dangerously. The cause of the explosion was stated to be the placing of an additional weight upon the safety valve, by a person not entrusted with the management of the engine.

PROVIDENCE, April 20. The regular election under the old constitution was held throughout Rhode Island this day. Governor King was reelected by a large majority, and also the Whig candidates of the Senate, together with a large number of Whigs to the House of Representatives.

ALBANY, April 20. The enlarged canal was opened this day from Albany to the Lower Aqueduct, a distance of about 14 miles. Two boats, with parties on board, including the acting commissioner for the

eastern section, the comptroller, and other public officers, departed from the Lower Aqueduct for Albany. The company, before their departure, examined the Lower Mohawk Aqueduct, which crosses the river on 26 arches of substantial and well finished masonry. The span of each arch is 37 1-2 feet, the entire length of the aqueduct 1,140 feet, and its width 40 feet. It was begun in 1838, and is now just finished at a cost of \$315,000. It is the largest aqueduct in America, and is a fine specimen of workmanship. There are on this section of the canal 18 new locks, 17 of which are double, of 10 feet, 10 feet 8 inches, and 11 feet 3 inches lift each. The average cost of the locks was \$75,000 each. One of the most remarkable works of masonry is the Lower Side Cut, at West Troy. It is of beautiful masonry of massive stone, and is of 22 feet lift. Its cost was \$107,000. There is another aqueduct, 220 feet in length, between Cohoes and Watervliet. The party who passed through this section of the canal in celebration of the opening, were met along the whole line by the assembled population, who greeted them with enthusiastic cheers.

AUGUSTA, (Maine,) April 29. Governor Fairfield, in consequence of the "extraordinary occasion" arising from the state of negotiations respecting the north-eastern boundary of the state, issued his proclamation, requiring the members of the legislature to assemble in special session on the 18th of May, for the purpose of deliberating and deciding upon such matters as should be then submitted for their consideration.

NEW YORK, April 30. The British W. I. steam-packet Medway, arrived at this port yesterday at 3 o'clock P. M. from the West Indies, and sailed for Halifax this day at noon. She left Havana on the morning of the 21st inst., and arrived at Nassau on the afternoon of the 22d, making the passage between the two places in about 20 hours. She left Nassau early on the morning of the 23d; was in Savannah the 25th, and in Charleston 26th. Officers and passengers landed at Savannah, but not in Charleston.

The following are the dimensions of this vessel:

Length from figure head to tailrail,	245 ft.
Length of keel,	213 "
" of spar deck,	223 " 10 in.
Breadth of beam,	36 "
" to outside of paddle	

boxes,	59
" of wheels,	8 " 06 in.
Depth,	23 " 03 in.
Height of spar deck,	7 "
Diameter of wheels,	32 "
Diameter of cylinder,	6 " 03 in.
Tonnage, old measure, 1,300 tons.	

She makes sixteen revolutions per minute, and usually runs about 11 1-2 miles per hour.

She will return to Havana by way of New York, Savannah, and Nassau, and leave Havana for England on the 1st June next, via Nassau, Bermuda, and Fayal.

UNITED STATES CONGRESS.

Our latest dates from Washington are to the 25th of April.

On the 21st of March, Mr. Giddings of Ohio offered in the House of Representatives a series of resolutions, which he professed to think were required as an expression of opinion in the Creole case. They declared that slavery, although recognized by the constitution in those States whose own constitutions admitted it, did not exist under the jurisdiction of the United States, as a confederated body, and consequently ceased at sea; and that the course taken by the negroes of the Creole was justifiable on this ground, for that slavery, being an abridgment of natural right, could only exist by positive municipal statute.

The resolutions excited the greatest indignation with a large part of the members of the House; they were considered as intended only to produce useless excitement on subjects of the highest importance and greatest delicacy. This feeling immediately manifested itself in the House, and Mr. Giddings, on this account apparently, withdrew his resolutions. A resolution of censure was presented immediately, blaming him for introducing, under such circumstances, such resolutions, which, as was said, besides their tendency to unnecessary excitement, "justified and approved murder and mutiny, in terms shocking to all sense of law, order, and humanity."

The previous question was ordered on this resolution of censure, and all debate was thus cut off. Mr. Giddings refused to make any defence, unless his right to do so were conceded, declining to take advantage of the general consent of all parts of the House to his proceeding to

defend himself. The resolution accordingly passed, without discussion, 125 to 69.

Mr. Giddings the next day resigned his seat in Congress, intending, however, to offer himself immediately as a candidate for reelection.

The debate on the Loan Bill, [Mon. Chron. p. 144.] continued through the month of March. On the 25th, the President sent a message to Congress, pressing the necessity of some immediate action on it, and recommending that the proceeds of the sales of public lands be pledged to the repayment of the loan, in order that capitalists might be induced to take it more readily. This proposition, however, met but little favor in Congress. The House rejected an amendment which embodied it, and on the 1st of April, the bill passed that body.

Having gone to the Senate, it passed that body on the 13th of April, 26 to 18, after a few amendments, which were subsequently acquiesced in by the House. The debate on this bill, and the fate of amendments moved in each House, showed the opposition of both Houses to a repeal or suspension of the land distribution act.

The debate in the Senate on Mr. Clay's finance resolutions, [Mon. Chron. Vol. III. p. 144.] which were offered, as will be remembered, merely in order to obtain an expression of the opinion of the Senate, closed on the 30th. Two of the resolutions were adopted: one declaring that the General Government should have an adequate revenue to meet its ordinary expenses in time of peace; and the other declaring that it was the duty of the Government to abolish all useless institutions and officers, to curtail all unnecessary expenses, and practice rigid economy; the rest were appropriately committed.

On the 31st of March, Mr. Clay, in presenting the credentials of his successor, Mr. Crittenden, took leave of the Senate in an eloquent address, in which he alluded to the long term of his public service, which was now apparently drawing to a close; and expressed his fervent hope, that the Senate might continue to carry out the great objects for which it was instituted, and promote by its deliberations the honor and prosperity of the country.

The House, having disposed of the loan bill, resumed the consideration of the appropriation bill, [Mon. Chron. Vol. III. p. 144.] the progress of which was still very slow, from the constant debate on separate items, on which members thought retrenchment might be made. On the 20th of April, the bill having been taken from Committee of the Whole, passed the House.

The Apportionment Bill was next considered, providing for the ratio by which the number of Representatives of the several States in Congress for the next ten years should be decided. By the last action of the House on this subject which has reached us, a ratio of 60,500 for a member was fixed upon. This ratio gives eight more members than the present House contains; the several States being entitled under it, to the number of members given in the annexed list:

Maine,	8	Georgia,	9
New-Hampshire,	4	Alabama,	8
Massachusetts,	12	Mississippi,	4
Rhode Island,	1	Louisiana,	4
Connecticut,	5	Tennessee,	12
Vermont,	4	Kentucky,	11
New York,	40	Ohio,	25
New Jersey,	6	Indiana,	11
Pennsylvania,	28	Illinois,	7
Delaware,	1	Missouri,	5
Maryland,	7	Arkansas,	1
Virginia,	17	Michigan,	3
N. Carolina,	10		
S. Carolina,	7		250

On the 4th of April, Mr. Salmonstall from the Committee on Manufactures, presented the tariff bill which it had agreed upon. No action has as yet been taken by Congress upon it, and we reserve a sketch of it until we have to mention the debates upon it.

WAR IN AFGHANISTAN. The most striking and disastrous event in the history of the last year, is the overthrow and destruction of the British military force in Afghanistan. We have prepared a narrative of this melancholy tragedy, with a brief history of the British occupation of Afghanistan, which on account of its length is necessarily postponed to the next Number.

THE MONTHLY CHRONICLE.

MAY, 1842.

ARTICLE VII.

THE WAR IN AFFGHANISTAN.

THERE is a large tract of country, situated between the River Indus on the east, and the Persian Empire on the west, which has been, perhaps, generally regarded as a part of Persia, though its inhabitants acknowledge no dependence upon that country ; and it has for a long period had little or no political connection with it. Some geographers have given it the name of Independent Persia. It is bounded on the south by the Indian Ocean, and on the north by the chain of the Caucasus, called the Hindoo Koosh, extending 800 miles from north to south, and 700 from east to west. It is a mountainous country, and rises at the north to a great elevation. In one part its mountains rise to the height of 20,593 feet above the level of the ocean, and although only in the 34th degree of latitude, they are covered with perpetual snow. Various ranges of mountains traverse the country, and intersect it by impassable ridges, one of the principal of which, running parallel with the Indus, is called the Solimaun. These ridges are intersected by occasional narrow passes, and between them are extensive elevated table lands, some of which are of great fertility, yielding the products, on account of their great height, of a temperate, rather than a tropical climate. At the south it consists partly of rugged mountains of less elevation, and partly of deserts, like those of Africa and Arabia, the sands of which being blown into waves, resist all cultivation, and almost effectually resist the access of the traveller.

In the northern part of this territory, sometimes designated as the
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Kingdom of Cabul, a brave Affghan Chief, Ahmed Shah, about the middle of the last century founded a powerful empire, which he extended by successive conquests over the neighboring parts of Hindostan, Lahore, Moultan, and Cashmere. The kingdom of Cabul became one of the most powerful in Asia ; but on the death of Ahmed Shah, it was broken up by the dissensions of his family, and the power of Runjeet Singh, the King of Lahore. The kingdom of Cabul proper, or Affghanistan, is estimated by Mr. Elphinstone to contain 8,000,000 inhabitants, of whom the Affghans are computed to number 4,300,000 ; the Beloochees, 1,000,000 ; the Tartars, 1,200,000 ; and the Persians, 1,500,000. The country of Belochistan is situated on the south of the kingdom of Cabul, or Affghanistan, and borders on the coast of the Indian Ocean. A part of this vast tract of country on the west is also called the province of Mekran.

The Affghans, in their aspect and character, present a striking contrast to the Hindoos, who inhabit the neighboring country. They have high and harsh features, and are of an independent and martial spirit. They are a more rude and unpolished people than those of Hindostan, and are acquainted with fewer of the arts of life. They are remarked for their simplicity of manners, their sobriety and contempt of pleasure, and their unbounded hospitality. They wear long beards and loose garments, composed, among the poorer classes, of shaggy skins and coarse cloths, and among the rich, of velvets, shawl-cloths and silks. The established religion is Mahometan, but a greater toleration of other religions prevails than in other Mussulman countries. Polygamy is permitted among them, but it does not prevail to a great extent. They are generally attached to a pastoral life, and near half of them, particularly in the western part of the country, dwell in tents. Of those who dwell in houses, a small portion have shown a disposition to congregate in cities. They are fond of hunting and of active sports. As the country is rich and productive, provisions, particularly fruits and vegetables, are cheap, and good living is common to the inhabitants. They are sober and temperate, yet indulge in conviviality and habits of hospitality.

The people of Affghanistan are divided into a number of tribes. On the northeast are the Berdooraunees, who are chiefly enclosed between the Hindoo Koosh on the north, the Indus on the east, and the Solimaun mountains on the west. Their capital, and one of the principal cities of the country, is Peshawer. The country inhabited by this tribe is peculiarly rugged, yet interspersed with fertile valleys, which are well cultivated, and maintain a great population. Interspersed among this tribe, and in the neighboring mountains, are a number of minor tribes, some of which are extremely savage in their manners, and predatory in their habits of living. Peshawer is situated

in a very fertile plain, and it formerly contained 100,000 inhabitants. It is now reduced to one half that number. It is rudely built, and its few good public edifices have gone much to decay. Further west is the country of the Ghilzies, in which is situated the city of Cabul, recently the capital of the country. It has a delightful situation, in a temperate and healthy climate, at an elevation of 6,000 feet above the level of the ocean, and surrounded by an extensive, finely watered and fertile plain. The soil produces an abundance of forage, and a profusion of delicious fruits. It has a population of about 60,000, and a bazaar of 2,000 shops, which is said to be without a rival in the East. Dost Mahomed, who made this his capital, maintained an army of 9,000 well-armed horse, and 2,000 infantry. Ghuznee, or Ghizni, is also in the same district of country. It was formerly the capital of a very extensive country, and the seat of a splendid court, but it is now much reduced, its streets are dark and narrow, and it contains but about 1,500 houses. When lately invaded by the British army, it was protected by a very strong citadel.

A portion of the country, situated still further west, is occupied by the Dooraunee tribe. The territory of this tribe extends from the mountains of Paropampus on the north, to the sandy plains of Seistan on the south. Their numbers are supposed to be about a million. Most of them are shepherds, living in tents, and leading a gay and pastoral life, indulging in frequent festivals, in which preparations of milk and sherbet furnish the chief regale. The principal town in this part of the country is Candahar, a very ancient city, which traces back its origin to the times of Alexander the Great. The present town, however, was built little more than half a century ago, by Ahmet Shah. Near the northwestern angle of the Affghan territory, is the town of Herat, and midway between this town and Candahar, is the large walled town of Ferra, the ancient Parra. In the vicinity of these towns are a number of minor tribes, boasting but a slight degree of civilization, and differing essentially from one another in their habits of life, and character. South of the territory occupied by these tribes, is the province of Seistan, situated in the lower parts of the basin of the river Helmund and its tributaries, and of the great lake Zerrah, into which this river flows. This country is celebrated in Persian story and song as one of the finest regions of the east. There are still to be found, at short intervals, along the Helmund, remains of extensive cities with superb palaces, which fully confirm the stories of the wealth and population of this country. It now exhibits a dismal reverse of this picture, and the cause of its desolation is sufficiently obvious. Being bounded on the west by the immense deserts which stretch along the eastern border of Persia, the wind,

which blows during a great part of the year from that quarter, brings with it a cloud of light sand, which in process of time converts the earth into an arid waste, destroying all vegetation, and in its gradual progress buries beneath it fields, gardens, houses, and entire towns. A similar process, on a much smaller scale, but operating with a like resistless energy, may be observed in one or two towns of the county of Barnstable, in the State of Massachusetts. In the country of Seistan, the only portions which have escaped this desolating inundation, are narrow belts along the banks of the rivers, along which there are some remains of fertility. The lake of Zerrah is the only large expanse of water in these countries. It is 90 miles in length, and 20 in breadth; but in dry seasons it is shallow, and much overgrown with reeds. It has no outlet, and the water is brackish, but it abounds with fish and wild fowl. In the centre of it is a fortified island, where the nobles were wont to take refuge when the country was invaded by foreign enemies. The river Helmund, which discharges its waters into this lake, is more than 500 miles in length, and it receives the waters of a large number of tributary streams. The river Furrak empties its waters into the same lake. The capital of Seistan, called Dooshak, is situated upon the Helmund, at some distance from the lake. It is a small, but neat and well-peopled city, and its inhabitants are more polished than most of those of this extensive country.

The province of Meckran, a vast tract of country 400 miles in extent from north to south, and more than half that extent from east to west, is either abandoned to desolation, or occupied by a number of small, fierce, independent, predatory tribes. A great part of this region is composed of a desert of red moving sand, so light as to be almost impalpable, but which is formed by the action of the wind into wave-like ridges of a peculiar structure, such as almost to impede the advance of the traveller. One side slopes gradually away, and the other rises perpendicularly to a considerable height. Eastern Belochistan is of a very different character. It consists of a huge mass of rugged and rocky mountains, with intervening valleys, most of which are rocky, and destitute of fertility. In the northeastern part is a tract, which is less barren than the rest, called Cutch Gundava. The capital of this province is Khelat, a town of 4,000 houses, which stands on land supposed to be 8,000 feet above the level of the sea, and therefore subject in winter to such intense cold, that the Khan and principal chiefs descend to a lower and milder region. The Khan of Khelat claims the sovereignty over the whole of Belochistan, but his actual power is chiefly limited to the district immediately adjoining. The Beloches are described as "a brave, hospitable, honorable robber, making raids of eighty or ninety miles to burn a village,

and carry off the inhabitants as slaves, but treating kindly, and securing from all harm, the stranger who has or purchases a claim to his protection." Along the sea-coast are a number of tribes of banditti, of the most ferocious and brutal class. There are three small sea-ports, of some little trade, which are subject, or tributary to the Imaum of Muscat.

It has been the destiny of this country to be governed, from time immemorial, by a succession of usurpers, sometimes with and sometimes without the claim of hereditary right in their respective families. One hundred years ago it was conquered by the bloody despot Nadir Shah. He had made himself master of the kingdom of Persia, and of some of the neighboring provinces of Turkey. He thence extended his dominion over Affghanistan, and marched with a powerful army into Hindostan. In the capital of that empire, Delhi, which he robbed of an immense treasure, it is said that he caused 100,000 persons to be massacred in one day. His cruelties were practiced upon the people of Affghanistan, as well as upon the Hindoos. A holy dervise said to him, "Invincible Shah! if thou art a god, show thy resemblance to the Deity by thy clemency! If thou art a prophet, show unto us the way of salvation. If thou art a king, put us not to death, but reign over us and make us happy." Nadir Shah replied, "I am not a god, that I should forgive; nor a prophet, that I should teach; nor your king, that I should reign over you: but I am he whom God sends in his wrath to punish the nations of the earth." He introduced into Cabul a colony of Persians, who remain there to this day, having increased to 4 or 5,000 families. Nadir came to a violent death in 1747, and from that time Affghanistan has been entirely independent of Persia. Ahmed Shah, an Affghan chief of the Duraunee tribe, who at the time of the assassination of Nadir, held a command in his army, fought his way through the Persian camp; marched back to Affghanistan with the contingent of troops from that country. On his way, by a piece of good fortune, he intercepted a convoy of treasure from Delhi; and on his arrival at Candahar, he caused himself to be crowned king. He maintained his power over Affghanistan to a good old age, and extended it over some part of the Mahratta confederacy. He was succeeded by his son, but his grandchildren were expelled from the country, and the power fell into other hands. It is not necessary here to go into a history of these revolutions, and to attempt it would extend this article to too great a length.

In the year 1837, the period when the government of British India first assumed an active interference in the affairs of this country, the Ameer Dost Mahomed Khan ruled at Cabul, and with other chiefs of his family held dominion over the greater part of the country.

His right to the throne, however, was contested by the descendants of Ahmed Shah, one of whom was in actual possession of the government of Herat, and another, the Shah Shojah-ool-Moolk was a pensioner of the India Government at Loodianah, in the kingdom of Lahore. The chiefs of this family had recently made an attempt to reinstate themselves in their hereditary possessions, but had met with a defeat, and had been permitted to withdraw from the country. Dost Mahomed had found another competitor for a part of his dominions, in the Maharajah Runjeet Sing, the powerful ruler of the Sikhs, and an ally of the British Indian Government. The power and resources of Runjeet Sing were vastly superior to those of Dost Mahomed, and his ambition led him to desire to extend his dominions beyond the Indus. He had made an actual conquest of Peshawer, one of the most populous provinces of Afghanistan. He had probably in view a further extension of his conquests in this quarter, but his attention having been drawn for a time in another direction, he withdrew a part of his troops. The Ameer in the mean time assembled an army of 30,000 men, made an attack upon the Sikhs remaining in Peshawer, and fought the battle of Jumrood on the 1st of May, 1837, in which it was said that the number killed on both sides amounted to 7,000 men. The Sikhs met with a decisive defeat, and were obliged to abandon the country. This was, however, but a temporary check of an enemy abundantly able to repair the loss, and the Ameer evidently stood in fear of the superior power of the ruler of the Punjab, who was preparing to recover his loss.

Dost Mahomed was also in danger from another quarter. One of the descendants of Ahmer Khan, the long acknowledged sovereign of the country, Kamran, Prince of Herat, retained the dominion over a province in the northwestern part of the Afghan territory, bordering on Persia. He had fallen under a sort of dependence on the Shah of Persia, but had recently failed of performing his engagements with that prince, whereupon the latter threatened to make himself master of Herat by military force. He raised an army for this purpose, and began to make pretensions to other provinces of Afghanistan, Candahar and Ghizni. Mr. Ellis, the British Minister in Persia, used his endeavors to dissuade him from his purpose. The Russian Ambassador, Count Simonitch, on the other hand, appears to have encouraged him in the design, as a successful military enterprise abroad would serve to establish him firmly in his power at home. The Shah persisted in his purpose, and after a long time spent in preparation, he took the field in person with an army of 40,000 men, and 100 pieces of artillery. The fortress of Ghorian, within the Afghan territory, was attacked and captured, and the army proceeded to lay siege to Herat. The siege was not actually begun until December, 1837.

The British Minister continued to protest against the proceeding, but it was countenanced on the other hand by the Russian Minister, and it was conducted by the aid of a Russian engineer. The garrison of the place made a vigorous defence, being aided by a British officer, Lieutenant Pottinger, and, contrary to expectation, it held out to the 9th of September following, when in consequence of the failure of an assault which was attended with severe loss, the assailants abandoned the siege, and returned to Teheran.

Ameer Dost Mahomed Khan, Chief of Cabul, finding himself pressed on the northeast by the Maharajah Runjeet Sing, an old ally of the British India Government, and also by a threat of invasion, on the side of Herat, by the Shah of Persia, applied for assistance to the Governor-General of India. He also addressed a letter, which he despatched by a special agent to the Emperor of Russia. It was known to the British Government, through their Minister in Persia; that the Shah was entertaining hostile projects against the Affghan Provinces, in which it was believed he was countenanced by the Government of Russia. The Governor-General of India, Lord Auckland, sent Captain Alexander Burnes, who had previously resided at Cabul, in a diplomatic capacity, to the court of Dost Mahomed, to ascertain the state of affairs, and with authority to promise, under certain circumstances, the friendly offices of the India Government. Captain Burnes arrived at Cabul in 1837, and soon ascertained that the Ameer had made advances for a negotiation with Russia, and also with Persia. Dost Mahomed received him with frankness, communicated to him a copy of his letter to the Emperor of Russia, and of the answer to it from the Russian Minister in Persia, and assured him of his desire to be on favorable terms with the British Government. But he was desirous to obtain from the Governor-General the promise of his interposition with Runjeet Sing, for the settlement of his differences with that Government, and also a guarantee to the chiefs of Candahar, and Kamran, Prince of Herat, of the possession of their respective territories against the designs of Persia. This was in the autumn of 1837, when the Shah of Persia was preparing for the invasion of Herat. Shortly afterwards, Captain Burnes was surprised by the actual arrival of a Russian agent, Lieut. Vickovitch, from St. Petersburg, who had set out thence in company with the Ameer's own agent; but the latter was taken sick, and was detained at Moscow. Lieut. Vickovitch brought with him a letter, with a present of splendid cloths, from the Russian Minister in Persia, and also a letter from the Shah of Persia. The Russian Minister, in his letter, says to the Ameer, that he hopes he will treat the agent with consideration, and trust him with his secrets.

Captain Burnes, in his letter to the Governor-General announcing

the arrival of this emissary, says that after he had presented his letters, he was invited to the Bala Hissar on the following day. "The communications which passed on this second occasion, have been made known to me, and are of a startling nature. Mr. Vickovitch informed Dost Mahomed Khan, that the Russian Government had desired him to state his sincere sympathy with the difficulties under which he labored ; and that it would afford it great pleasure to assist him in repelling the attacks of Runjeet Sing on his dominions ; that it was ready to furnish him with a sum of money for the purpose, and to continue the supply annually, expecting in return the Ameer's good offices. That it was in its power to forward the pecuniary assistance as far as Bokhara, with which state it had friendly and commercial relations ; but that the Ameer must arrange for its being forwarded on to Cabul. The agent stated that this was the principal object of his mission ; but that there were other matters, which he would state by-and-by."

It does not appear that the Ameer at first received the propositions of the Russian emissary with much cordiality ; but being disappointed of the offers and assurances which he had anticipated from the Governor-General, he was led by degrees to the determination of placing his reliance on the offers of aid from Russia. We cannot give the history of the negotiations at length. The principal points of it are sufficiently explained for the present purpose, in the following letter from the Ameer to the Governor-General, in which he describes his situation and wishes ; and in the letter of Captain Burnes, in which he gives an account of the termination of his mission. The first of these letters, from Ameer Dost Mahomed Khan to Lord Auckland, dated at Cabul, March 21, 1838, with the omission of the complimentary part, is as follows :

"When I was anxious to hear of your welfare, and to receive the marks of your lordship's favor, your highly-esteemed letter reached me, and made me happy. Its contents, which I fully understood, conveyed the promise of your lordship's favor, in behalf of the Afghan people, to some limited points ; and also how far your lordship will do them kindness on certain conditions. All this I have perfectly comprehended.

"Consequent on my several applications and ardent hopes for a settlement of my affairs with the Sikh Government, your lordship was kind enough to depute Captain Alexander Burnes to Cabool.

"Meanwhile other circumstances happened ; the King of Persia marched on Herat, which delayed the settlement of affairs on this side the Attock (Indus). As I rely on the British friendship, I gave no countenance to the Persian government. What I wrote to prevent the Sirdars of Candahar from making any connection with Persia is known to Captain Burnes.

"After this had occurred, the Emperor of Russia has sent here his messenger, with his Majesty's royal letter to me, which I showed to Captain Burnes, along with my own letter to the Emperor, which I had addressed in the time of my distress.

"I have not yet replied to the letter from Russia, as snow, and the disturbances of the road, prevented my dismissing the messenger; but as the winter is now over, and the roads are free from danger, I shall by all means dismiss him, that he may return to his country safely.

"To make known objects in the hope of profit, to those personages who can do some good to the man in want, is consistent with propriety. Your lordship is the source of generosity and favor; therefore I take the liberty to repeat my grievances, expecting that your lordship will release the Affghans from distress, and enlarge their possessions.

"If your lordship settles the affairs of the Affghans, they and their posterity will be grateful; you will have a good name; and by their connections with the British Government they will perform most important and useful service, according to your satisfaction. The King of Persia is now besieging Herat; but if your lordship would give us a little encouragement and assistance, his Majesty would never be able to attack the country of the Affghans.

"The favors of your lordship are beyond the description of my pen; but I am lost in speculation what has created this neglect of your lordship in behalf of the Affghan people. A settlement of the affairs of the east of Afghanistan remains under a painful delay; disturbances are making havoc on the west; and the whole of this people are low-spirited; how then is it possible that this nation can be free from impending dangers? I have no kind of inclination to enter into an alliance with any other power but the British.

"If we resolve to check the progress of the enemy on the west, my want and need prevent me undertaking the expedition. If Herat falls into the hands of the Persians, it will cause serious loss and damage to the whole country of Afghanistan. When disappointments afflict the heart of mankind, they do many things that are wrong. I hope Herat will never be taken by the Kajars, which might compel the Affghans of that part to submit to that power.

"The chiefs of Candahar, somewhat by fear, and somewhat by weakness, as well as by their hopelessness, are bringing death to themselves. If they become friends to the Persians, and I also be unable to protect them, this will produce much harm in Afghanistan.

"I hope, and sincerely trust, that your lordship will apply an immediate cure to my pains, for the Russians are publicly assisting the Persians, and have made a breach in the treaty which has long subsisted between them and the British, by stepping into the country of Afghanistan.

"If such things do take place, what then prevents your lordship remedying our grievances and protecting us?

"If your lordship would give us a little encouragement and power,

it would be impossible for Mahomed Shah to go back safely to Persia, or to take with him the baggage and guns which he has now with him at Herat.

"If your lordship is pleased to bestow a little trouble to adjust affairs between this country and the Maharajah Runjeet Sing, who is the great and old ally of the British, how is it possible that we should make objection to it, or to suitable arrangements for peace?"

"As I rely on your lordship's favor, I have freely laid open my feelings in the hope of better fortune, since delays raise up fears of danger.

"Captain Burnes will fully inform your lordship respecting the rest of my affairs. Let me be honored by hearing from your lordship."

Extract from a Letter from Captain Burnes to W. H. Macnaghten, Esq., dated

CABOOL, April 25, 1838.

"On the 24th ult. I had the honor to report, for the information of the Right. Hon. the Governor-General of India, the mode in which my discussions with the Ameer of Cabool had terminated, and that, though hope then existed of some ultimate good understanding being established, it has day by day grown more faint; and I have now received my dismissal from Cabool, and am preparing without loss of time to quit this city and retire upon Peshawer. The immediate cause of such a step being necessary, is the arrival of Sirdar Mehir Dil Khan from Candahar, and the demands in consequence made by him, in which he has been joined by the Ameer, for a direct promise of protection from Persia, should Herat fall, of which there is no doubt now entertained by the authorities here. I shall report in detail the circumstances which have led to this untoward event at Cabool.

"Shortly after Sirdar Mehir Dil Khan reached this, he waited upon me, and we conversed upon all which had passed; when I plainly told him the manner in which the Ameer had met the views of the British government, was by no means likely to satisfy it, and instanced his declining to open any communication, direct or indirect, with Maharajah Runjeet Sing, as the clearest proof of his neglect of our advice and his own interests. The Sirdar expressed great concern at what had passed, but immediately turned upon the affairs of Candahar, stating that he had full powers from his two brothers there to treat with me, and that he must have, as the price of adhering to us in the present critical state of affairs at Herat, a pledge of protection from Persia. I told him that he could have no stronger or better pledge from government than the presence of Mr. Leach at such a juncture, for the British never deserted their friends; and who would presume to disturb them when an agent accredited by it was resident at Candahar?"

"This was far from satisfying the Sirdar, who declared that neither he nor his brothers could accept such general promises, and that they had a claim on the British, since, whatever might have been the behavior of the Ameer at Cabool, the Candahar family had done nothing

wrong, and adhered to our government, which was bound in consequence to protect them. This interview took place on the 13th inst.

"On the 15th I received another visit from Sirdar Mehir Dil Khan, who was accompanied by the Nawab Jubbar Khan, Meerza Samee Khan, and the Naibs of Candahar and Cabool. The deputation was a formal one from both branches of the family. The Sirdar now informed me, that the Ameer had agreed to write to the Maharajah, through the Governor-General, to dismiss Captain Vickovitch; to hold no further communication with other powers; to write to the Shah of Persia that he had done with his Majesty for ever. The Sirdars of Candahar, on their part, agreed to address the Shah, recal Ullahdad, the agent, who had accompanied Kumber Alea, and to place themselves, along with their brother the Ameer, entirely under the protection of the British Government. In return for which they claimed at its hands two things. First, a direct promise of its good offices to establish peace at Peshawer, and an amelioration in the condition of Sultan Mahomed Khan; and, second, a promise, equally direct, to afford them protection from Persia, in whatever way the British judged it best for their interests, it being clearly understood that Candahar was not to be allowed to suffer injury.

"In reply to these observations, I observed that it was very satisfactory to hear what had been stated regarding the intentions of the Ameer and the chiefs of Candahar; but the deputation must not wonder at my being skeptical as to their sincerity, after my having received, so long since as the 23d ult., a letter of promise, addressed to the Governor-General, to dismiss Captain Vickovitch, while that officer still continued in Cabool; that with respect to Peshawer, the whole matter rested on Maharajah Runjeet Sing, with whom we were willing to use our good offices, if they behaved in a suitable manner; and had nothing further to say, than to regret their fixed determination not to address that personage directly, which might protract to a remote period a settlement so much to be desired for the good of all parties. With reference to their desisting from all intercourse with other powers, that followed as a mere matter of course, if they expected our friendship; but it was a very grave question for me to answer, that we should immediately secure Candahar from the attacks of Persia. Mr. Leech was there, by my orders, and with the sanction of the Governor-General; and what proof of our intention not to forsake them more valuable than this could they desire? But, for my part, their apprehension seemed to be very premature, for Herat was not yet captured, and the brave defence it was making should dispel their despondency. 'Above all,' said I, 'your proceedings seem singularly inconsistent, when it was but three months ago that you informed me you did not fear Persia, but the ruler of Herat.'

"To this the Sirdar replied, that 'I could not have considered that they had not only received an agent from the Emperor of Russia in Cabool, but a written promise, under the seal and signature of M. Goutte, the Russian agent with the Shah of Persia at Herat, which he

had with him, granting all that they desired; and it was for me to consider how far, under such circumstances, they could receive my arguments in opposition to such direct and recorded pledges. I asked if they reposed confidence in these papers: 'Most certainly,' was the reply, 'since they are from Europeans, whose word is inviolable.' 'But,' continued I, 'is not Russia to aid you, through means of Persia; and how does the Shah act towards you? He addresses you as his vassals, and calls your country a part of his own. Are Lord Auckland's letters or views couched in such terms? Certainly not.' 'That may be all true enough,' said the Sirdar; 'but a powerful enemy threatens us; and if you will do no more than use general terms, and go no further than keeping Mr. Leach at Candahar, we must take measures to secure ourselves in the manner best suited for our advantage.' The interview lasted about four hours; and I need not repeat the many arguments adduced for their abstaining from an alliance with Persia, since there was nothing new in them further than has been now given.

"On the 17th instant, as I have already reported to government, an agent reached this from Herat, bringing, as now appears, a communication from Vizier Yar Mahomed Khan, begging for assistance, and setting forth the difficulties which increased upon them, all of which went to still further excite the fears of the Ameer and of his brothers for their own safety, since the fall of Herat was again placed before them, and with it, as they believed, a shaking of their own stability, with which they could only contend by throwing themselves upon Persia, through Russia; or by drawing from me, as the agent of the British Government, a pledge that no harm would befall them.

"On the 19th I received a second deputation, consisting of the Nawab, Meerza Samee Khan, and Reshid Akhoond Zadee, the adviser of the Candahar chiefs; but Mehri Dil Khan was not of the party. The chief spokesman on this occasion was Reshid, and he set forth at great length the views of his master. 'It appeared,' said he, 'that this is no longer an affair between one nation and another, but it is Russia and Persia against England and the Sikhs; for Captain Vicksitch has publicly declared to the Ameer, that the interests of the Emperor and the Shah are identified; and though we would not trust the Shah himself, we may safely rely upon Russia.' Meerza Samee Khan stated, that a termination one way or the other was now at hand; and as the Ameer and his brothers had no other wish but to adhere to the British, I might easily keep them in our interests by giving the promise asked of me, though there was little hope of my doing so, when a single word from the Government might have long since settled Peshawar, and we refrained from saying it. Besides replies of a justificatory nature to these points, I told the party that they very unnecessarily obtruded upon us the power of Russia; that she was a very remote nation, to say nothing further of the inutility of an alliance with her; and that as for the comparison between Persia and Runjeet Sing, I could assure them that the Maharajah's power was far superior to that

of Mahomed Shah, and I spoke from personal observation. On my declining to give the promises asked of me regarding Candahar and Peshawar, the interview terminated.

"On the following day I had a private interview with ———, who did not conceal from me that the Ameer had withdrawn his hopes from our government; and though he did not tell me on whom he had centred them, it was not difficult to discover. He told me that Capt. Vickovitch had informed him of his Government and Persia being one; and that the Russian agent had been explaining to him in what manner Mahomed Shah had been raised to the throne of Persia. The English and Russian governments had both given him their hand; but the object of Russia was to exalt his Majesty, and of England to lower him.

"Any doubts as to the course which the Ameer and his advisers were to follow, were soon removed; for he opened at once an intercourse, in person, with Captain Vickovitch, and, besides having been long closeted with him, sent for him publicly on the 21st instant, when he was conducted through the streets of Cabool, and received a greater degree of respect than had been hitherto shown to him. The nature of the intercourse between him and the Ameer, has been reported to me on good authority, and is any thing but complimentary to the British; but, as it rests on report alone, I shall not here record it.

"Seeing that the Ameer was now almost reckless, and, if respectable people are to be relied on, even encouraged to commit himself by some acts of indiscretion towards the mission, I resolved on the 22d to address him a firm but temperate note, drawing to his mind all past events, not from any hope that advantage could be derived from it in my negotiations, but to place as distinctly as possible before him how much he might have himself to blame for any thing that followed. This document is appended (No. 1). On the day after it had been transmitted I received a reply, containing a notification of his having done with the British Government (No. 2), in which, as there were some circumstances requiring explanation, I again addressed him in writing (No. 3,) and applied for carriages to convey the commission to Peshawar. This I sent for delivery to himself; when he enlarged upon his ill-fortune, and our want of appreciation either of himself, or the dangers which threatened him; adding, that he would most certainly attend to my requests for carriage, and see the party safely carried beyond his country, which would still be open to all people of the English nation who visited it.

"On the 24th I had no communication with the officers of the Ameer, but in several notes regarding the arrangements for my departure, in all of which every and prompt attention was paid to my wishes, and proper persons nominated to accompany me to the frontier.

"On the 25th I was visited by Sirdar Mehir Dil Khan, the Nawab, Meerza Samee Khan, and the Naib of the Ameer; but it appeared to be of entirely a complimentary nature, for though they set out with

professing to do all the government wished, there was no change in what has been previously stated. Mehir Dil Khan said that the Ameer had understood it had been reported that Captain Vickovitch had written to Maharajah Runjeet Sing to desire him to quit Peshawer; and I said at once, that it was as public as report could make it; when the Sirdar said that it had been talked of, but not settled. He then said, that the presence of an agent from Kamran, now with me, was not consistent with a due regard to our friendly professions towards them. To this I replied, that I had not sent for an agent from Herat; that it was well known to them, if the British had mediated for the safety of Herat, the price of that was to be the discontinuance of attack on Candahar, and, what was still further, the Ameer in his note had included Herat as a part of Afghanistan to be protected; and there had been so little concertment in the object of the agent's mission, that I had given the letters of which he was the bearer, for the perusal of the Meerza of the Ameer. This was unanswerable.

"In the afternoon I had my audience of leave with the Ameer, whom I found considerably excited. He ran over the contents of the note No. 2, and said very distinctly that he had erred in applying to the British Government. I answered that it was ready to do what he had asked of it; and he interrupted me by saying, that if the Governor General believed it was a protection of Cabool he had sued for, it was a mistake. Seeing the tone of feeling exhibited, I thought it advisable to say no more on what had passed; and, preparatory to leave-taking, thanked him for his attention and arrangements for my returning to Peshawa. He on this renewed the question of my departure; declared he was not to blame; that he had discarded Persia in the hope of pleasing us; and likewise slighted Russia; for, instead of caressing Captain Vickovitch, as was due to a great government like Russia, he had paid him no attention, and came always in person to visit me, while he had sent no one to him. He now appealed to me if he had not been indifferent to the Russian agent; and, knowing as I did what had passed within these few days, I looked surprised. He then observed that he did not allude to what had passed this day or two, as he had certainly seen, and consulted with Captain Vickovitch, and meant to avail himself of his services to rid Afghanistan of its present difficulties; but here again, continued he, I suffer from having called in your government: Persia will perhaps refuse my offers, because I treated her agent slighting'y, and Russia may tell me that I only cling to her when you have cast me off.

"Seeing matters in this state, I said but little, and referred him to my written papers, when the Ameer launched forth in praise of the English nation, and the conduct of the mission, &c., and begged I would stay as his guest for a few days. I replied, that the servants of the public were not their own masters, and after what he had written and stated, it was my duty to quit his country without delay, as I would never feel satisfied in a land where the good will of my government was not appreciated; that that good will was implored through-

out Asia, but had lost its virtue in Cabool. I added, that this was the second instance of failure in this country, and that where a man so celebrated as Mr. Elphinstone had failed, it might have been presumptuous in me to have hoped for success. To this he replied, that Mr. Elphinstone's failure arose with the inability of the Affghans, but my failure with the disinclination of the British; for what other meaning was attachable to words when Herat was about to fall, and Candahar threatened? After some further conversation, I took my leave, with many apparently kind and gracious expressions on his part."

Captain Burnes, after his departure, obtained a copy of the report of Lieutenant Vickovitch to the Russian Minister in Persia, Count Simonitch, of the results of his mission to Cabul, a part of which, as it is in many respects curious, and throws some light on the progress of the negotiation, we here subjoin, from the translation of Captain Burnes.

"Having departed from Candahar 2d (or may be the 27th) November, of the past year, 1837, I arrived at Cabool on the 8th of December. The reception of Dost Mahomed Khan, and his condescension towards me, was sufficiently marked, — polite and kind.

"I was lodged in the house of the first minister, Meerza Adoo Selm (probably Abdool or Abdalla) Khan, and after three days (waiting), I demanded an audience, when I delivered the imperial credentials (literally the most high letter), and the letter of your lordship; and to that I added verbally, that the object of my coming was to evince to him, and the rulers of Candahar, the very gracious wishes (or inclinations) of the Emperor; and to declare that his Majesty the Emperor was pleased to return a gracious reply to the letter of Dost Mahomed Khan, and vouchsafed to him protection and friendly alliance; that the rulers of Afghanistan, having made up or reconciled their differences among themselves (this passage is rather guessed at, being unintelligible), should acknowledge, or place themselves, under the dominion of Persia, with whom Russia is connected by truly friendly relations.

"The Ameer, in showing his satisfaction at the imperial letter, gave me to understand, that a friendly treaty (on the part) of the Affghans with the Persians could not be (subsist) because an English envoy, Captain Burnes, now here, has concluded (or was concluding) a mutual treaty. That Dost Mahomed Khan, having collected as large an Affghan army as possible, (should go or was to go) to the assistance of Kaimran, against the Persians besieging Herat; and by that treaty the English bound themselves to give (to supply) the Affghans 20,000 muskets. (Some words here about the Russian alliance not legible.) And to make over to the possession of the Affghan, Peshawer, and the other conquests of Runjeet, on the right bank of the Indus; and that the treaty was despatched to Calcutta, for the information of the Governor-General of India, Lord Auckland. Thus terminated my first

interview with the Ameer Dost Mahomed; but his Vizier Meerza Abdool (Hossein) Khan almost daily comes to me, and makes various inquiries regarding the power of Russia, and the other European governments. In the mean time, Captain Burnes departed for Candahar, accompanied by the lieutenant of artillery, Leech, in order to (induce) the Candahar rulers (to enter into) a treaty, and (to withdraw themselves) from friendly relations with the Shah. The English have established between Cabool and Candahar, a kind of (letter post); and they have written (or it has been written), that the Persians are defeated, have retreated to Meshid, and have suffered extremely from hunger (want of provisions). All this has occasioned Dost Mahomed Khan to conduct himself very coldly towards me; and then, as he daily (converses) with Burnes, from my arrival here to the 20th of February, I have hardly three times been in his presence. Having discovered from Meerza Abdool Khan, that he, (I do not make out whether Abdool Khan is here meant or Dost Mahomed) had a secret distrust of (or dislike to) English influence (or connection), I endeavored, as much as possible, to strengthen it, and succeeded in shaking his previous confidence in and friendship towards them.

"In the mean time, on the 21st February, was received from Lord Auckland, a reply distinctly (decidedly) to cancel (refuse) all that Burnes had negotiated (or agreed upon); but in his letter (not clearly made out) he does not advise the rulers of Affghanistan to enter upon any alliance with Persia or other powers, that the Affghans were in a great measure indebted for their independence to the support of the English, who restrained Runjeet Sing from conquest. The true cause (reason for) such proceeding of Lord Auckland, as Burnes declares, is the following:—Runjeet, having received from the company a proposal to give up to the Affghans Peshawa, and other conquests, that he would willingly comply with the wishes of the company upon receiving intimation to that effect (some reference here to the territories between the Indus and Cashmere, and securing the succession to his heirs, but I cannot make connected sense of it.) On receiving such proposition from Runjeet, Lord Auckland replied, that in consequence of (or on the occasion) the approach of the Persian Shah to Herat, he decidedly (objects) and advises Runjeet to retain Peshawa, and oppose himself to the movements of the Shah, who, as reported, is resolved to extend his march (or conquests) to the borders of India. Dost Mahomed Khan, abandoning his hopes of assistance on the part of the English, has sent to Candahar (the purport) of the letter received from Lord Auckland, and requested for consultation and coöperation one of the Sirdars of that place. Burnes, on his part, has written to Lieutenant Leech (being) at Candahar, that he should by all means endeavor to dissuade the Sirdars from going to Cabool, and with Dost Mahomed Khan. But the ill-conducted intrigues of Leech have been disclosed, and roused the Sirdar Kohen Khan, and led the Affghans to adopt the contrary course—to join—Dost Mahomed Khan, and break off all connection with them (the English), and place themselves under the

away of Persia, with the guarantee of Russia ; that the Shah should apply (100 m) muskets for the equipment of the Cabool and Candahar army, and that after the taking of Herat, the Shah himself, with his troops, should advance into Affghanistan for the recovery of the provinces conquered by Runjeet. In demonstration of the sincerity of this proposal, the Ameer Dost Mahomed Khan, and the Sirdar Kohan Khan, — as one of their proceedings. — Meerza Abdool Khan, who not only possesses the entire confidence of Dost Mahomed Khan, but influences all affairs in Affghanistan particularly, — and the Sirdar Mehir Khan. — They request me to set out (in the course of the month) to forward (or obtain) from your lordship, the guarantee — that the Persians shall fulfil the conditions upon which the Affghans agree to submit themselves to the sway of Persia ; and for that purpose, I intend leaving Cabool, on the 26th or 27th of April. Capt. Burnes has frequently demanded of Dost Mahomed Khan that I should be immediately dismissed, and that the rulers of Affghanistan should engage not to enter into any negotiations (or relations) with Persia and Russia ; but seeing that now affairs have taken entirely another turn, he does not wait for the arrival of his companions, who last autumn went into Toorkistan, and having instructed Lieutenant Leech to proceed from Candahar to Shikarpore and Hyderabad, (where he probably) suspects that the ruler of Sind may enter into the confederations forming between Persia and Affghanistan, he left Cabool on the 19th (or may be 17th) instant, (April ;) and went through Peshawer to Lahore. I have the honor to present, for the favorable consideration of your lordship, a brief description of Affghanistan."

It is at this day matter of surprise, that the Indian government should have suffered the negotiation with the Affghan chief to take this turn, and to break off in this manner. It is evident, that Dost Mahomed felt himself in a most embarrassed condition, in danger of being crushed by the great powers on each side of him, and conscious of receiving but a doubtful support from his own subjects. He felt the necessity of some protector, and was disappointed in the coldness of the Governor-General, and alarmed at the extremely guarded and unsatisfactory nature of his promises of support and assistance. He evidently considered the English as entirely in the interest of his inveterate enemy, Runjeet Sing, as they refused to give him any pledge of their good offices for a satisfactory settlement of his differences with that chief, of whom he apparently stood in great dread. It has been said that the Governor-General was influenced by other counsels than those of Captain Burnes ; that Mr. Macnaghten, Captain Wade, and others, were opposed to any reliance on Dost Mahomed, and the chiefs of the Baruckzye tribe, on the ground that they were not the lawful sovereigns of the country, and that the hereditary right belonged to the Sudderzye tribe, of whom Shah Shoojah ool-Moolk was the head. It appears, from various declarations of Captain Burnes

in his publications and letters, that he thought favorably of the capacity and character of Dost Mahomed, and of his popularity and influence with his tribe, and in fact regarded him as the only Affghan chief who was capable, without foreign aid, of making his authority respected among the Affghan tribes. He had long before this time expressed himself decidedly as to the incapacity of Shah Shoonjah for administering the government or conciliating the good-will of his subjects.

The Governor-General seems to have been impressed with the necessity of an active interposition, to resist the interference of Persia and Russia, and of allying the Indian government with a sovereign in Affghanistan, who should rely exclusively on their support to the exclusion of any dependence on Persia or Russia. The failure of the efforts which had been made by the British government to dissuade the Shah of Persia to desist from his hostile designs against Herat, appears to have convinced him not only of the preponderance of Russian counsels with that sovereign, but of the necessity of taking the field in actual force, to counteract the success of their joint efforts in that quarter.

Captain Burnes arrived at Simla, on the Jumna, where the Governor-General then was, in August. On the 13th of that month, Lord Auckland wrote as follows, to the India Board in London: "I believe it would be useless for me to present to you new proofs, after those which I have already transmitted in my last despatches, of the manifest design of the Russian officers to extend the intervention and authority of their country upon the frontiers of India. The opposition of the Russian ambassador before Herat, an opposition which defeated all the efforts made by Mr. McNeill to restore peace, by means of an arrangement, founded on a just and reasonable basis, between the Shah and the besieged, at the moment when they seemed on the point of succeeding, the assistance given by the Russian ambassador to the sovereign of Persia by advancing money, and the employment of an officer of engineers to direct the labors of the siege, are facts to which it is my duty to call the most serious attention of your board."

When the facts above stated were communicated to the British government, an explanation was demanded from the Russian Court, through the British Ambassador at St. Petersburg. That court explicitly denied any intention of disturbing the tranquillity of the British possessions in India. It admitted that a Russian agent had been sent to Cabul, but solely for the purpose of forming commercial relations, and to secure a fair competition for Russian manufactures, in the markets of Central Asia. On another occasion, Count Nesselrode acknowledged to the British ambassador, that Count Simonitch had acted in a manner, of which the British government had a right to complain, and that he had therefore been recalled.

The India government came to the resolution of supporting the claim of Shah Shoojah to the throne of Cabul, and that of Runjeet Sing for the restoration of the province which had been conquered by him, and in consequence a tripartite treaty was entered into between the three parties, for carrying this purpose into effect. It was stipulated that Herat should remain in possession of its present ruler; that for the restoration of Shah Shoojah to the sovereignty of Candahar and Cabul, he was to enter Affghanistan surrounded by his own troops, and supported by a British army; and that an army of Sikhs should invade the province of Peshawar. The treaty contained various other stipulations, and on the 1st of October a public declaration was issued by the Governor-General, in which the purpose of the Indian government, of arresting the progress of foreign aggression, was announced. A powerful force was assembled on the Jumna, in Bengal, and placed under the command of Sir Henry Fane; but before it had commenced its march, news was received of the raising of the siege of Herat, in consequence of which the plan of operations was somewhat changed.

It was resolved to send forward the army of the Indus in two divisions, under the command of Sir John Keane, the commander-in-chief at Bombay. The Bengal division proceeded from the Jumna to the Sutledge, descended the left bank of that river to the Indus, and thence to Shikarpore, on the confines of Sinde, whence it proceeded by the Bolan Pass to Candahar, in the heart of Affghanistan. The Bombay division proceeded by the mouths of the Indus, and was obliged to fight its way, — the Ameers of Sinde having refused their permission to its passing through their territory. The army marched upon Hyderabad, and took possession of that city without serious resistance. It subsequently captured Kouratchee, the richest city in Sinde. A treaty was then entered into with the Ameers, by which the latter agreed to make an immediate payment of £300,000, to abolish the tolls on the Indus, and to pay a heavy tribute to the British government. Several other treaties were entered into with the petty princes, for the promotion of trade with that country. On the 14th of February, 1839, the Bengal division crossed the Indus at Bukkor on a bridge of boats, it being the first time that a British army had passed to the left bank of this noble river. About the middle of March, the whole army, including the contingent at Shah Shoojah, which formed the central division, assembled at Shikarpore. From this place the army proceeded by way of Dadur, through the Bolan Pass to Quetta, and thence to Candahar. The march was a most arduous one, from the difficulties of the route. The commander-in-chief established his head-quarters with the advance column at Quetta on the 5th of April, receiving the command from

Major-General Sir Willoughby Cotton. He complimented him on the judicious manner in which he had conducted the march of the Bengal column over the great distance from Ferozepore, including the crossing of the Indus, and especially the manner in which he surmounted the difficulties in the march from Shikarpore to Dadur, and the passage through the Bolan Pass, with artillery, cavalry, and infantry, which had arrived in Afghanistan in highly creditable order. On the 4th of May, Sir John Keane established his head-quarters at Candahar, which city he entered without resistance. In general orders, issued on this occasion, the commander-in-chief compliments the troops for the manner in which they accomplished the march, in the following terms: "The combined forces of Bengal and Bombay being now assembled at Candahar, the commander-in-chief congratulates all ranks on the triumphant though arduous march, which they have accomplished from distant and distinct parts of India, with a regularity and discipline which is much appreciated by him, and reflects upon themselves the highest credit. The difficulties which have been surmounted have been of no ordinary nature, and the recollection of what has been overcome must hereafter be a pleasing reflection to those concerned, who have so zealously, and in so soldier-like a manner, contributed to effect them, so as to arrive at the desired end. The engineers had to make roads, and, occasionally, in some extraordinary steep mountain passes, over which no wheeled carriage had ever passed. This was a work requiring science and much severe labor; but so well has it been done, that the progress of the army was in no manner impeded. The heavy and light ordnance were alike taken over in safety, by the exertions and good spirit of the artillery, in which they were most cheerfully and ably assisted by the troops, both European and native, and in a manner which gave the whole proceeding the appearance, that each man was working for a favorite object of his own." Notwithstanding the general success with which the march was accomplished, it suffered heavy losses from sickness and fatigue, and from the depredations of marauding parties of the natives. Between Gundava and Dadur, the Beloochees hung upon them, flank and rear, and swept off the camels and baggage. These marauders were well mounted, and carried a sabre in addition to a dagger and gun. One of their means of annoyance was to dam up the rivers, and to compel the troops to march through the water. In the Bolan Pass they were compelled to abandon many of their tents, and lost many of their camels. They suffered also from the scarcity and bad quality of provisions, and so much were the officers and men reduced by bad diet and hard duty, that one of the pressing wants of the army was a deficiency of tailors "to reduce clothes, and take in sword-belts." In the fertile and healthy valleys

of Candahar, at an elevation of 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, the soldiers were soon recruited from their fatigues.

Shah Shoojah was received in a friendly manner, and on the 8th of May he was crowned as king of Affghanistan, with due ceremonies. The troops remained at Candahar for repose for several weeks. The army at length resumed its march, and arrived before Ghizni on the 21st of July. This was found to be an extremely strong fortress and citadel, garrisoned by 3,500 Affghans, under the command of Mahomed Hyder, the son of Dost Mahomed Khan, with a large number of guns, and with an abundance of ammunition and stores provided for sustaining a regular siege. A large body of troops, under the command of Mahomed Ubzal Khan, the eldest son of Dost Mahomed, was also encamped outside of the walls, including 1,500 horse, under two chiefs of the Ghilzee tribe. On reconnoitering the place, it was determined to carry it by storm, and this determination was carried into effect on the following day. At 3 o'clock in the morning, preparation having been made, by laying down powder in the face of a steady fire from the enemy, and for a simultaneous attack upon the fortress, the Cabul gate was blown in by a tremendous explosion, and an opening was made, through which a column, led by Brigadier-General Sale, obtained a footing on the inside of the fortress, although opposed by the Affghan soldiers with great strength, and in the most desperate manner. A fire was kept up for some time, but the resistance was without avail. Entire possession was obtained of the fortress, with the loss of about 200 men killed and wounded. The loss of the enemy was great, about 500 being killed. Sir John Keane highly complimented his officers and men for their gallant conduct in this action.

On the 30th and 31st, the army began its march from Ghizni upon Cabul in two columns, accompanied by his Majesty Shah Shoojah-ool-Moolk, with his own troops, forming part of the second column. On the third day of the month information was received, that Dost Mahomed with his army, including the division of his son, Mahomed Akhbar, who had been withdrawn from Jellalabad and the defence of the Khyber Pass, amounting in all to 13,000 men, with artillery, was strongly posted at Urghundec, 24 miles in advance of Cabul. Arrangements were made for attacking him, when in the course of the night messengers arrived, and on the following morning a great many chiefs, with the information that Dost Mahomed's army was broken up, in consequence of the refusal of a great part of his troops to stand by him; and that, in consequence, he had fled with 300 horsemen in the direction of Bamian, whither he had previously sent his family and most valuable property, leaving his guns behind him loaded, in position as they had been placed for the attack of the ad-

vancing column at Urghundee. Shah Shoojah immediately sent forward a confidential officer, with a small party of troops, to take possession in the king's name of the guns, and the public stores there, as well as at Cabul, and the Bala Hissar, a citadel of Cabul. A strong party was also detached in pursuit of Dost Mahomed. The army continued to advance, and on the 7th of August the King entered his capital, accompanied by the British Envoy and the gentlemen of his mission, by the commander-in-chief, generals, and staff officers of the British forces, escorted by a squadron of British troops. After traversing the principal streets, and reaching the palace in the Bala Hissar, a royal salute was fired, with an additional salvo in the Affghan style, from small guns called jingalls, carried on camels. The British army was encamped in the vicinity of the city. A large portion of the troops who deserted Dost Mahomed enlisted in the service of Shah Shoojah, and were received into his pay.

At this moment, the prospects of Shah Shoojah appear to have been brighter than at any previous or subsequent period. A letter, dated on the day of the reception of the news of the flight of Dost Mahomed, says, "thousands of Affghans have been coming in to tender their allegiance to his Majesty, who is in the greatest spirits at this pacific termination of the campaign, and says that God has now granted all his wishes." The fact, that only 300 persons had been induced to follow the late ruler, was regarded as a most favorable omen. What was before suspected, however, was soon proved, that the new sovereign had not the capacity to acquire the confidence, and command the respect and obedience of his subjects, and that he could sustain his power only by foreign aid. On the outset of the expedition, in execution of the treaty between him and the British Indian government, he was authorized to raise a military force in India of 1,000 cavalry and horse-artillery, and five regiments of infantry of 800 men each, to be commanded by British officers. The command of the whole was given to Col. E. H. Simpson. He was permitted to raise this force by voluntary enlistment from the other regiments in India; but his want of popularity and bad reputation were such, that it was found difficult to raise the necessary contingent, although the pay of the troops appears to have been guaranteed by the British Indian government. His army suffered heavy losses from sickness and fatigue on the march. The reputation of Dost Mahomed for talent and courage stood much higher than that of his competitor. Dost Mahomed made his escape to Bokhara, where he was permitted to reside with his family by the king of that country, under a sort of surveillance; but in the subsequent winter, being suspected of an intention to make his escape, he was made a close prisoner, as were also his two sons. He was subsequently transferred to India, where

he continued to reside, mostly at Loodiana, under some sort of restraint, until the occurrence of the recent events.

Runjeet Sing, in pursuance of the tripartite treaty, sent an army, which had entered the valley of Peshawer, but had not entered the Khyber Pass at the time of the entry of the allied army into Cabul. Soon after, the news of the death of the Rajah, which happened on the 27th of June, reached his army in Affghanistan, upon which the Sikh troops abandoned the expedition, and returned to Lahore. The funeral of Runjeet Sing was celebrated with great pomp, and his ashes were conveyed in solemn procession from Lahore, to be distributed in the sacred Ganges, at Hurdwar. Serious difficulties had been apprehended on the death of this sovereign, from the peculiar condition of his family ; but the difficulty was postponed for a short period. The succession devolved on his son, Kurruck Sing, a man of weak intellect, while the management of affairs devolved on the son of the latter, Nao Nihil Sing, a man of an eccentric and unprincipled character. Kurruck Sing died in the following year, not without suspicion of poison, and in returning from his funeral his son was killed, by the falling of a beam of wood upon him, as he was passing an archway. The final succession has not been definitively settled, and in the mean time the extent to which British influence will prevail in this country remains to be determined.

Shah Shoojah being, as was then hoped, firmly established on his throne, Sir John Keane detached a part of his troops, in addition to the contingent of the Shah, to remain in Affghanistan, and with the residue returned to India. The troops which remained consisted of two divisions, one stationed at Cabul and Jellalabad, under the command of General Sale, and the other under General Nott, at Candahar and Quetta. Mr. McNaghten remained at Cabul, in the capacity of Envoy at the court of Shah Shoojah, and Captain Burnes as political agent. In reward for their services in the expedition to Affghanistan, Sir John Keane was made a peer by the title of Baron Keane of Ghizni, in Affghanistan, and baronetcies were conferred on Mr. McNaghten, Colonel Pottinger, and Captain Burnes.

It soon became apparent that the new sovereign possessed no great capacity for government, or for commanding the attachment or confidence of his subjects. Letters received from time to time from Affghanistan, expressed freely the opinion, that he must rely solely for support upon British troops. The number of troops in that country under the command of British officers, including the contingent of Shah Shoojah, was about 7,000 ; and it was doubted whether these were sufficient for preserving tranquillity. Indeed, there were frequent outbreaks, which required the interposition of the troops, and insurrections among some particular tribes, which it cost much effort to put down.

In July, 1840, the Bombay Times, in speaking of the state of things in that country, remarks as follows: "The accounts of the conduct and condition of Shah Shoojah, continue the same as formerly; that his habits are those of a haughty, silly, sensual, confirmed reprobate, totally unworthy of British countenance or protection; who, the moment that our forces were withdrawn from the country, would become the deserved victim of his own outraged subjects, by whom he is held in equal hatred and derision."

The winter of 1839, '40, was severe in Affghanistan. The snow fell in January at Cabul to the depth of five feet, and the weather was extremely cold. A letter from that place of Feb. 18 says, that the frost had continued unmelted through the winter, and that there had been beautiful skating. A large convoy of 2,000 troops, under command of Col. Wallace, with money and ammunition loading 500 camels, and with provisions, left Bengal for Cabul, by way of Lahore and the Sikh territory. There were not less than 2,000 camels in the convoy, and 4,000 camp followers. It was accompanied by 30 or 40 British officers, and several families, among whom were Lady Sale and daughter. The convoy reached the Chenab about the end of February, and arrived at Jellalabad on the 18th of February, having been met at Peshawer by Sir Robert Sale, and getting through the Kyber Pass, between the two cities, in four days. The 37th and 48th regiments of native infantry had been despatched from Jellalabad, to escort them through the Pass, it being understood that the Kyberries were rising *en masse* for the purpose of attacking the convoy.

From this period to the sudden breaking out of hostilities in the autumn of 1841, the state of affairs in Affghanistan did not undergo any very material change. The conduct of the king was not such as to inspire any increased confidence, and the discontent of the native tribes, or of their chiefs, frequently displayed itself in outbreaks, which led to collisions between them and portions of the British troops, and which, in a number of instances, were attended with considerable loss. Still, there was no indication of any approaching general outbreak of the people, or any extensive conspiracy against either the power of the sovereign, or the British troops. During this period several convoys, with reinforcements of troops and supplies of money, ammunition, and provisions, arrived in the country, both by way of Bengal, the Mahrattah country, and Peshawer, and by way of Sindé, the Bolan Pass, Quetta, and Candahar. The force of the two divisions of British troops was considerably augmented.

At the time of the breaking out of the insurrection, there were resident at Cabul Sir W. H. Macnaghten, the British Envoy, and Lieut. Col. Alexander Burnes, Political Agent, Major General Elphinstone,

Commander-in-Chief of the British forces, and Brigadier Anguetil, commanding the troops of Shah Shoojah. The British troops stationed there as auxiliary to the forces of the Shah, were not in the city, but in cantonments at a distance of five miles from the town. These troops consisted of the 44th regiment of the line British troops, the 5th, 37th, and 54th regiments native infantry, containing from 700 to 900 men each, Anderson's regiment of horse, a troop of European horse artillery, 6 companies of sappers and miners, and 6 troops of the 5th light cavalry, and one regiment of the Shah's troops. The commissariat stores of the army were in small forts, detached from the principal cantonment of the troops. The number of British troops, the greater part consisting of the India regiments, and hardly capable of action during the cold season, was about 5,500, of whom 1,100 were cavalry. There were attendant upon the army a great number of followers, men and women, who either came with the army or followed with the successive convoys, to a greater number than the army itself.

Major General Sir Robert H. Sale was at Jellalabad, with the 13th regiment of light infantry, the 35th native infantry, and detachments from the artillery, and sappers, and miners, having been engaged during nearly the whole of the preceding month in an attempt to open the Khoord Cabul Pass, between that place and Cabul, which was occupied by hostile bands of Ghilzees, and other tribes, who entirely cut off the communication between the two cities, and also the communication between Cabul and India. This was accomplished as far as Gurdanuck, by a succession of actions, in which considerable loss was sustained, and in one of which the Major General was wounded.

Major General Nott was in command of the southern division of the army in Afghanistan, and was at Candahar with a strong force, consisting of the 40th British regiment, the 2d and 38th native infantry, and the 2d and 4th regiments of the Shah's contingent. These troops were furnished with sufficient supplies of provisions to serve them until spring. At Ghizni there was one regiment, the 27th native infantry, under Col. Palmer, garrisoning the strong citadel at that place, furnished with provisions, as was supposed, for six months.

"The insurrection, which is described as participating in a great measure of the religious enthusiasm, to which the fanatical Moslems can be excited by the preaching of their Imauns, broke out on the night of the 1st of November, when Sir Alexander Burnes, and his brother, and Captain Bradfoot of the 44th were killed, the house of the first named, being within the city, was plundered; and some money in the treasury of Captain Johnson, which was close to the former house, was

made a prey of. The captain, having slept in the British cantonments, escaped the slaughter, as well as Brigadier Anguétel and Captain Troup, who were his inmates. Captains Skinner and Drummond, Captain Trevor, and his lady and his children, remained for some days concealed in the city, by some of their friends.

"Shah Shoojah, who had on the 2d sent his son to the relief of Sir Alexander Burnes, where the Prince performed prodigies of valor, received on that day a communication from Sir W. H. McNaghton, then in the cantonment, about five miles from the town, requesting leave for Brigadier-General Skelton with two regiments, and Captain Nicholl's troop, to enter the Balla Hissar, and to shell the town. Leave was given, and the shelling took place. The infuriated populace attacked the Commissariat Fort, which lay immediately to the north of the town, between it and the cantonment, and as it was weakly defended, soon became masters of it. This was a dreadful blow to the troops, as at the time there was flour but for two days remaining in the cantonment. Another fort, in which some commissariat stores were kept, was also attacked, and after a defence of three days by Captain Mackenzie and a few men, taken also. A panic appeared to have seized the troops, who found themselves in the beginning of winter shut up in their cantonments, in a valley 200 miles from the Indus, without sufficient clothing or food, and amidst a fanatical Mussulman population. Even between the British leaders a difference of opinion prevailed; the Envoy being desirous of offensive measures, while Gen. Elphinstone, from circumstances connected with the forces, among whom despondency and vacillation are described as then prevailing, maintained his opinion for defensive ones. At the solicitation of the Envoy, some small forts in the neighborhood, which contained grain, were captured. In the mean time the news of the dispersion of several of the Afghan corps in Shah Shoojah's service, commanded by British officers, reached the besieged, and contributed to add to their gloomy prognostics. Various reverses and successes followed during some days. The troops from the Balla Hissar were recalled to the cantonment, and the Envoy urged a decided attack on the enemy; the General, however, maintained that all such attacks would be futile: the soldiers began to despond, and all was misery. There were, nevertheless, skirmishes every day, which did not tend to raise the spirits of the sepoys and soldiers, who saw their enemy hourly increase, while they themselves had scarcely food, and but insufficient raiment for the season. So greatly were they dispirited, that they were one day driven back to their camp, after they had during three hours been exposed to a galling fire. The Ghilzee Chief, Osman Khan, did not choose to pursue them within their intrenchments, where they, it was then feared, would have made a feeble resistance. Their provision was flour, which they obtained by bribery during the night. It was then recommended that all the troops should be concentrated in the Balla Hissar. Captain Conolly, who was then with the Shah, advocated the propriety of so doing; but the military authorities declared the move-

ment impossible, as they could not rely upon the disheartened troops. The last regiment was then withdrawn from the Balla Hissar, which is, as every one knows, a citadel on a hill to the eastward of the town, and Shah Shoojah was left to his own resources.

"The insurgents, who were aware of the movement of succor from Candahar, now appeared disposed to enter upon negotiations for the withdrawal of the British troops. The Envoy, on hearing of the retreat of the Candahar brigade, and learning that no aid could be expected from General Sale, then at Jellalabad, or from the Indus, gave a reluctant assent. Conferences took place, and a long list of articles, drawn up in Persian, by Sir W. H. McNaghton, was agreed to on both sides. They are said to exceed twenty in number.

"The second and favorite son of Dost Mahomed, Mahomed Akhbar Khan, who, subsequent to his father's surrender, had remained in concealment, and had even escaped beyond the confines of Afghanistan, having made his appearance during the insurrection, took a decided part in the negotiation. The insurgent chiefs exhibited great willingness to have the British troops removed from Cabul, and arrangements are said to have been made for that purpose at different meetings, which were held outside the cantonments. After various parleys, a message was, on the 22d of December, brought from Akhbar Khan to Sir W. H. McNaghton, to request an interview on the following morning. The British Envoy went thither, accompanied by Captains Lawrence, Trevor, and Mackenzie. They had not been present five minutes, when a signal was given, and all were seized and forced to mount behind some Ghilzee chiefs. The British Envoy resisted, and was slain, as was also Captain Trevor, who had slipped off the horse on which he had been placed. Their murderers are now said to be "Ghazees," or religious enthusiasts, who fight as soldiers for "the sake of God," and who, if killed in battle, are called "Shuhdees," or martyrs. The treatment of Sir W. H. McNaghton's body has been described as most barbarous. His lady is stated to have offered a large sum for its ransom, in order to its being decently interred. The other two officers were saved by the dread of the Ghazees to fire at them, lest the Ghilzees, who rode before them, should be wounded. They returned to the cantonment on the 28th. Akhbar Khan has, it appears, boasted of his having in person killed Sir W. H. McNaghton.

"Maj. Pottinger, well known since the defence of Herat, took charge of the British mission, and the negotiations for the withdrawal of the troops were continued. On the 6th of January they moved from their cantonments, which were instantly seized by the insurgents and burnt. The snow was one foot deep on the ground, when the troops reached Begrooma, three miles distant. The schemes of Akhbar Khan then became evident: he had despatched emissaries throughout the country through which the unfortunate British soldiers had to pass, calling on the people to rise *en masse* and slay the infidels. His call was not heard in vain. On the first day's march Cornet Hardyman, of the 5th Cavalry, and some men were killed. Mahomed Akhbar Khan, who

had taken charge of the retreat, contrived to induce the British to take up stations at night where he chose. On the 7th they moved to Bareekhar, where the three mountain guns were seized. Their rear guard were obliged to act on the defensive during the whole of the day. On the 8th the camp was nearly surrounded by enemies, and it became evident that the British soldiers would have to fight their way to Jellalabad. Captain Skinner went to Mahomed Akhbar Khan, who was on a hill close to the British camp, and inquired why they could not proceed according to the convention. The reply was, that they had left the Cabul cantonments before the troops destined to protect them were ready, and that no chief but he (Akhbar Khan) had the means or power to protect them, notwithstanding their convention.

"This military convention is not fully known, and therefore all its provisions cannot be stated. It is pretended, that among the articles there are some declaring, that all the British troops were to evacuate Afghanistan, and that notice of such a convention had been sent to General Nott at Candahar, and to General Sale at Jellalabad. It is said to have been signed by General Elphinstone as Commander-in-Chief, and by Major Pottinger as acting Political Agent, and also by Brigadier Skelton, Brigadier Anguтил, and Colonel Chambers.

"Akhbar Khan, whose violent hatred to the British had been sharpened, not only by the conquest of his father's territories, but by his own exile and subsequent imprisonment in Bokhara, and by his wild fanaticism, demanded then, on the third day of the retreat from Cabul, that the British should, when surrounded by the Ghazees under his command, make new terms with him, and promise not to proceed further than Tazeen, until the withdrawal of the force under Sir R. Sale from Jellalabad was known, and he insisted on six hostages. Major Pottinger, who was lame from a wound, instantly offered to be one, and at Akhbar Khan's orders Captain M'Kenzie and Lawrence were included. The Ghazees were, however, not restrained in their attacks, and a fearful slaughter followed on the movement towards Khoord Cabul. The column was attacked on all sides. The fourteen ladies who were in the centre seemed objects of special desire. Mrs. Anderson and Mrs. Boyd had each a child carried off. Akhbar Khan, while the Ghazees were thus busy, professed his inability to restrain them, and on the 9th of January demanded that the ladies should be placed under his protection. The miserable weather, the snowy wastes, the rough mountain tracks, and the month of January in the coldest regions of Central Asia, compelled them to yield. The hostages halted for some days in that neighborhood.

"The demand on General Sale to relinquish his post was made on the 9th of January, and on that day he refused to do so unless by orders from the Supreme Government. This answer was taken back to Akhbar Khan. The unfortunate Sepoys began again to move, and were again assailed; the Sepoys, who form such good soldiers under the broiling sun of India, being enervated and stupified by the cold, scarcely offered any resistance, and hundreds of them were soon despatched

by the Ghazee cut-throats, but the Europeans and some brave men kept together until they reached the pass of Jugdulluk. Here General Elphinstone and Brigadier Skelton became hostages, and were detained two miles distant by Akhbar. General Elphinstone wrote a note in pencil to Brigadier Anguetil: "March to-night; there is treachery." The British troops marched early in the night; they came to the frightful mountain pass; it was barricaded; they forced the way, and reached Jugdulluk, which they defended some time, until Brigadier Anguetil was killed. All order was then lost, and confusion and separation, slaughter and destruction ensued. Several officers, who were well mounted, attempted to make good their way into Jellalabad. Some of them arrived within three or four miles, when they were murdered and plundered, and their bodies left on the road. Only one officer, Doctor Brydon, of the 5th Bengal Native Infantry, though wounded in several places and exhausted, succeeded in reaching the place of safety in Jellalabad on the 13th. Of the fate of the other 4,000 soldiers and 6,000 camp followers, nothing certain is known: many have been killed, others are dispersed, and as yet it is difficult to decide. The names of thirty-five officers have been published as killed from the commencement of the insurrection, but fears are entertained that it may amount to its quadruple, out of the great number missing. Some of the sepoys are said to have been sold as slaves to the Oosbeg Tartars.

"Letters continue to arrive from various quarters, representing the state of the prisoners and hostages. Akhbar Khan is said in a letter received from Major Pottinger, dated January 23, to be at the fort of Badeesabad, in the Lughman country, where he keeps the following prisoners, viz.: General Elphinstone and Skelton, Lieutenant M'Kenzie, Captain and Mrs. Anderson and child, Captain Boyd, Lieut. Eye, Lieut. Waller, Mrs. Trevor, Lady Sale, Lady M'Naghton, Mrs. Sturt, Mr. and Mrs. Ryley, Sergeant and Mrs. Wado, Captains Troop, Johnson; and G. P. Lawrence, and Major Pottinger. There are, besides, the six officers and the sick, who were left at Cabul on the departure of the troops. Akhbar Khan, in the letters from that fort, which are received unsealed, is described as doing every thing 'to make them comfortable!'

"An attempt of the insurgents to seize Ghizni is said to be so far successful, as that the town is in their power; but Colonel Palmer, with his regiment and six months' provisions, is stated to be safe in the citadel. At Candahar an insurgent force showed itself on the 10th of January, when an attempt was made to carry off the camels belonging to the 43d Bengal Native Infantry. On the 11th, Prince Suftur Jung, the youngest and favorite son of Shah Soojah, and Mahomed Atta, the chief, came with a large force within about five miles distance. General Nott marched against them on the 12th, and in a short time dispersed the whole with a trifling loss; the young Prince proved himself a coward, as he is a traitor to his father's friends.

"General Sale has, however, maintained his position at Jellalabad,

which he has fortified with a ditch, and planted cannon in different places, with a determination to defend his position to the utmost. Akhbar Khan has attempted to raise the Oolooses, or heads of the neighboring clans, in order to attack Jellalabad, but the gallantry and resolution displayed by Sir Robert Sale in October, during his march from Cabul to Jellalabad, have given them such proofs of his bravery that they have hitherto rather hesitated. The troops in Jellalabad are stated to be well provided with food, and able to keep their ground until the beginning of March, particularly as they have already discomfited two contemplated attacks.

"The celebrated mountain pass, called the Khyber, lies between Jellalabad and Peshawer, and the inhabitants, who are in possession, have been long notorious for their plundering propensities. Akhbar Khan sent to offer money to induce them to resist not only the departure of the troops under General Sale, but also the entry of all the troops which may be called by the Supreme Government to relieve the garrison at Jellalabad. The Khyberrees are said to be highly incensed at the small sum offered for their concurrence in his plans by Akhbar Khan. It was not more than 1,500 rupees. They, however, have made preparations to resist on their own account, and a brigade, under the command of Colonel Wild, which was sent from the Sutledge early in December, having reached Peshawer, made an attempt to force the pass. Having left their artillery behind in India, and the only guns procurable in that direction being unserviceable ones from the Sikhs, the attempt made by Colonel Wild was unsuccessful. Two regiments penetrated to the fort of Ali Musjid, where a British garrison was stationed; but, as they found neither provisions nor ammunition there, they were obliged to retreat towards Peshawer, having lost an officer and some men. In the mean time the Supreme Government has not been idle. General Pollock has been despatched at the head of a considerable reinforcement towards Peshawer, which he with sufficient guns and abundant ammunition reached on the 7th ult., and is now making preparations for proceeding through the Khyber pass."

When Sir R. Sale learned the state of affairs at Cabul, he resolved on securing Jellalabad, and defending it until succor should arrive from India. Reinforcements were expected, and in fact four regiments of infantry were on the way, and arrived at Peshawer on the 30th of December. Had they proceeded immediately, they might probably have reached Jellalabad through the Khyber Pass, without serious opposition. But they made a long halt at Peshawer, and in the mean time the enemy approached and occupied the passes. The troops at Jellalabad were busily occupied, working seven hours per day without remission, strengthening the defences of the place, being on short allowance for provisions, with a short supply of ammunition, and destitute of money. On the 9th of January, three messengers arrived, bringing an order from Major General Elphinstone to Gen-

eral Sale to retire immediately with his brigade to Peshawer. 'This order General Sale declined, for the present at least, to obey, on the supposition that it was given when under restraint. Brigadier-General Wild advanced with the four regiments from Peshawer as far as Junrood, and on the 16th of January the 64th and 53d regiments were ordered forward to Ali Musjid, 16 miles into the Whylia Pass, towards Jellalabad. They set out at 10 o'clock at night, and by a forced march arrived at Ali Musjid by 8 o'clock in the morning, their purpose not having been anticipated by the enemy, and took the fort by surprise, with slight resistance, one officer and twelve men being wounded. They were, however, without provisions, except what they carried on their backs, being a four days' supply, which, by being put on a half allowance, was made to last for eight days. They were also without tents, and without shelter, exposed to continual rains, in a temperature below freezing. Two other regiments attempted to follow, with artillery, sappers, miners, &c.; but the Khyberrees were on the lookout, manned the passes, and to force them was impossible. On the 25th, the two advanced regiments having exhausted their provisions, sallied out from their miserable fort, and made good their retreat in the same manner as they had effected their advance, exposed to the continual fire of the enemy, from which they sustained a heavy loss of near 200 in killed and wounded in each regiment.

There are other accounts of these disasters, which vary in some particulars from the foregoing. There are many other details, some of which give the affair a more terrific aspect even than is presented in this narration. Much yet remains to be related, and much to be explained. The supreme government at Calcutta, on receiving intelligence of these appalling events, gave notice that the most active measures would be immediately adopted and steadfastly prosecuted, for expediting strong reinforcements to the Affghan frontier, and for assisting such operations as might be required in that quarter, for the maintenance of the power and interest of the British government. It was announced that all the military means at the disposal of the government, would be applied to these objects. For strengthening the British force in India, the government at home has sent out reinforcements, increasing the force of all the Queen's infantry regiments in India to 1,000 rank and file each, recruited by volunteers from the line at home, who were permitted to transfer themselves in certain proportions, receiving a bounty of 30s. per man. Besides these recruits, there were sent from England in transport ships, five regiments of 1,000 men each, in the 10th foot, 78th Highlanders, 29th, 84th, and 86th, all which sailed in the month of April. One regiment, the 25th, was also ordered from the Cape of Good Hope.

All regular communication with the officers in Affghanistan is cut off, and very little official information appears to have been received since the breaking out of the insurrection. The route by the Bolan Pass was not entirely obstructed by the enemy, but communication by it must be extremely precarious. Accounts, ^{above} alluded to, have been received, by way of Delhi and Calcutta, from Jellalabad, to Jan. 25. Letters had been received there at that date, from Major Pottinger and Captain Lawrence, who with others were held as hostages to be exchanged for the Ameer Dost Mahomed. These and other officers from the fort Badeeabad, in the Lughman country, were distributed at the houses and forts of the different men of rank, and with the exception that they were allowed little intercourse with one another, were treated with consideration, and even kindness. The authority of these letters on this point has been somewhat suspected, from the fact that they were despatched open, and the writers must have been aware, that their contents would become known to the enemy.

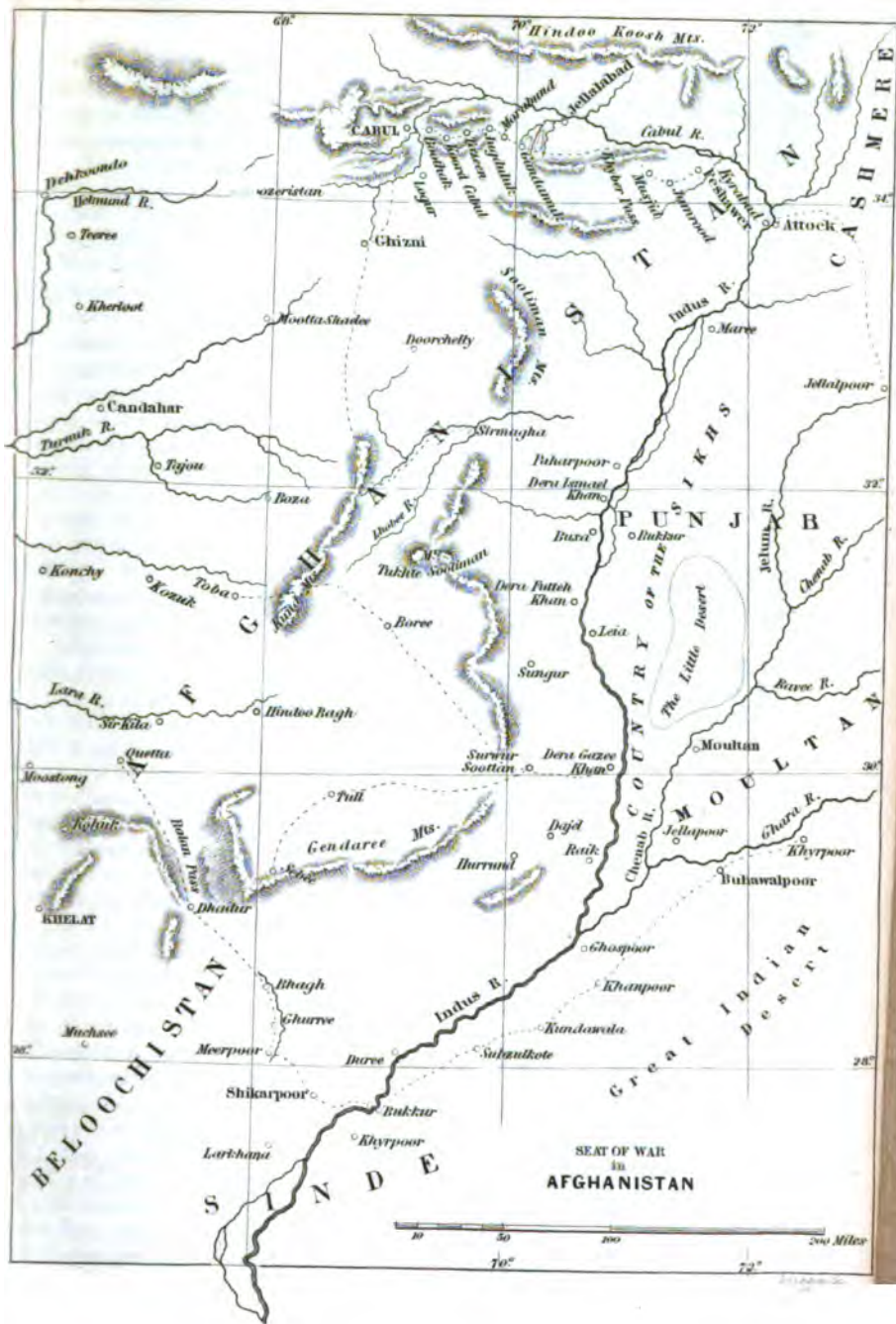
Dost Mahomed, at the date of the last accounts from India, was at Loodiana, in Hindostan, under guard of a company of soldiers, who had strict orders to prevent his escape. His cousin Mahomed Abzul, or Abdool, had recently made his escape. It was said that Dost strenuously denied any participation in the proceedings of his son Akhbar Khan. The family of Akhbar, including two sons, besides females, were at Loodianah. Further information from Affghanistan is awaited with anxiety.

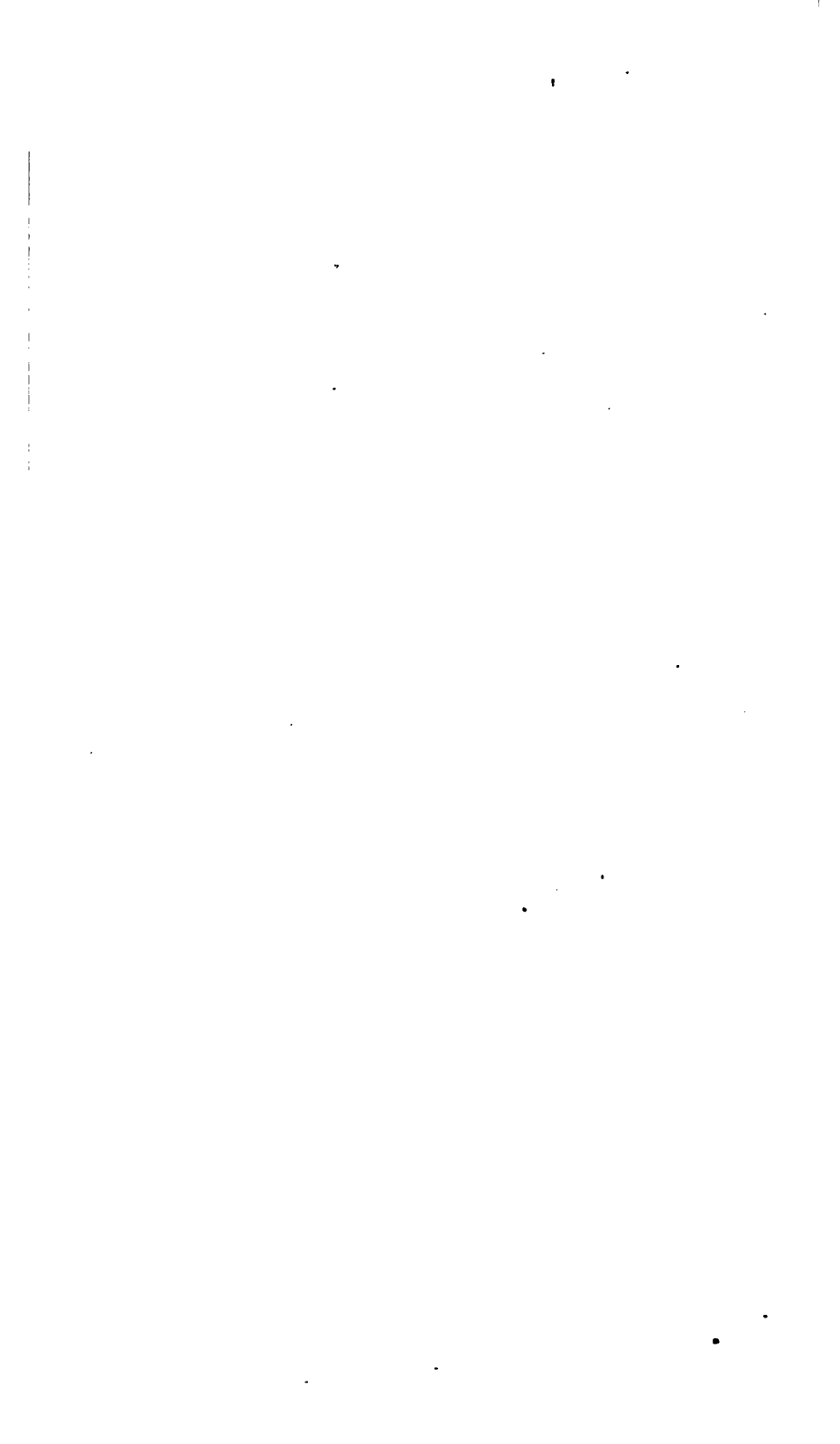
M I S C E L L A N Y .

THE APOCRYPHAL NAPOLEON.*

No one ever reads history without thinking with wonder how small are the contingencies on which its most important events turn. The hesitation of a moment has been enough to decide the fate of empires for years. It is natural that we should pause sometimes to imagine

* *Napoléon Apocryphe. Histoire de la Conquête de la Monde et de la Monarchie Universelle, par Louis Geoffroy. Poussons jusqu'au bout la gloire humaine par cet exemple. BOSSUET. Paulin, Paris.*





what might have happened, if one of these little stones in the current of time had not turned the direction of the stream. A small majority only in the councils of the pilgrim fathers of New England voted for the emigration to "Virginia," against a minority which wished to turn to the sunnier savannahs of Guiana. Where and what should we of New England be now if they had been disposed to vote on the other side? The dauphin of France, a prince, himself the heir of the finest kingdom of Europe, was married to Mary Stuart, Queen of Scotland. That dauphin, had he lived, would have been the head of a race of princes, who would have ruled by hereditary right France, England, Scotland, and Ireland. If he had lived, what would be the European history of the last two hundred and fifty years? A British minister happened to see a wealthy Virginian risk large sums at play, and he conceived the idea of recruiting his suffering exchequer by the taxation of his transatlantic colonies. Where would the United States of America be now, if he had spent that evening at a cabinet dinner, instead of sitting by a hazard-table? Such questions are readily asked. No one can read history attentively, without being constantly tempted to ask them. They are not so easily answered, however; answered, we mean, so as to preserve the appearance of consistency or plausibility. We have but very few instances of what can properly be called imaginary history; of an historical account following directly after real history, and preserving its appearance.

The curious French book, the name of which stands at the head of this article, is one of these few instances. Actuated, as he tells us, by a desire to show of what man's genius is capable, what he might effect were he not constantly thwarted by the caprices of fate, the author has given us the history of some of the leading events in the world's history, as he supposes *they would have happened*, if Napoleon had been victorious over the Russian arms after the fall of Moscow. The attempt is a bold one, and bravely executed. M. Geoffroy, without the advantage of having piles of facts for reference at his elbow, has written a history much more plausible and consistent than many books, which have been founded on a more tangible basis.

As we have said, M. Geoffroy makes Napoleon conquer Russia. Spain and Portugal are next subdued, and the conquest of England crowns the next year's campaign. The expulsion of Mahmoud and his army from European Turkey, and the nomination of a mayor of the commune of San Marino, in the arondissement of Rimini, make Napoleon sovereign of Europe. Those parts of Asia which had not been dependent on Russia and England are next made to submit by a religious crusade led by the Emperor in person; his immense fleet makes him master of the Ocean and its islands; corps d'armée under his most noted generals march through Africa almost without opposition, and finally the States of America, wearied by their constant internal dissensions, agree in congress at Panama to submit themselves and their constitutions to Napoleon, who is thus, fifteen years after the conflagration of Moscow, made *sovereign of the world*. Such is a gen-

eral account of the progress of his conquest. We prefer to let the book speak for itself, than to attempt to make any analysis of its contents. We shall, therefore, trust to our translations of different passages from it to give an idea of the details of the advances towards universal monarchy, and of the results which attended it.

The following chapter, from the opening of the book, is spirited; the prediction with which it closes, tallies but too well with the results of more authentic history. The account begins immediately after Napoleon's entrance into the deserted Moscow.

"Napoleon was always glad to sleep in the beds of other kings, and establish himself in palaces, from which his appearance had driven them. Having ordered the army to take up its quarters in the suburbs, he went himself directly to the Kremlin, and there, in the evening, he walked on the highest towers, silent and alone, contemplating the deathlike quiet of the city at night. All was depressing and sad to so active a mind as his. He saw his army stretched along in the suburbs, a deep silence reigning in the city, and repose every where, excepting in a few palaces, which seemed animated by the presence of generals who had taken up their quarters in them. All that could be heard was an occasional Scythian cry, sounding from place to place at intervals, as if of persons replying to each other.

"The clocks struck midnight. The horizon grew red; flames rose from the midst of the town; the bazaar had taken fire, then the churches, the houses, the suburbs; the fires shot up every where; Moscow reappeared in the night all glowing with fiery domes and spires of flame.

"The Emperor understood this disaster; he remembered Wilna, Smolenska, and the burning villages which had lighted up his march. "Let it die then," he cried; and gave orders that the army should immediately leave the infernal city. The soldiers had been roused before. The cry of "fire" resounded on all sides, but only from French lips. The first night's sleep in the conquered town was disturbed by the terrors of a conflagration.

"His orders were executed. At five o'clock in the morning, the troops filed out of Moscow, and reascended the slope of Mount Salvation. The videttes, having advanced as far as Petrowski, the palace of the Czars, prepared it for the Emperor, who proceeded thither with his staff; and, observing a large chateau half a league further on, he sent forward General Kirgener with his engineers to fortify this position.

"But, while in full sight of the chateau, and only a few musket shots from it, they saw clouds of smoke bursting from it, followed by flame, with slight explosions. This magnificent dwelling, enveloped in every part, became at once only one immense body of fire. In the distance, carriages were observed hastening from it with all speed. General Kirgener gave orders that they should be pursued, but they were so far in advance that the attempt failed; and they had escaped his troops when they fell in with a body of French. These surrounded them, and took them to the General.

"In the first carriage was an old man, of middle age, large, thin, of a dignified figure, and fine countenance. At the first attack he attempted to defend himself; but, seeing that resistance was useless, he yielded and proceeded to General Kirgener, who, seeing no distinguishing mark on the stranger, asked him his name.

"What is that to you?" replied the unknown.

"The general, irritated at this almost impertinent reply, was about to threaten some punishment for it, when the unknown added, 'My rank, Sir, is such that I have a right to claim to speak and to disclose myself to the Emperor only.' The General hesitated; but the man's coolness made him yield the point, and he led him to Petrowaki.

"The Emperor was visiting the posts of this residence, and was crossing one of the courts, when the carriage of the unknown entered. An officer who followed him dismounted, and explained the circumstances of the capture, and the determination of the prisoner to disclose himself to none but the Emperor. Napoleon looked steadily upon the stranger, then ordered the court to be cleared, and when they two were alone with Duroc, asked,

"Who are you?"

"A man, who had hoped to escape the vengeance of your Majesty, but who, charged as he has been with a great undertaking, does not fear to assume the responsibility of it, and to avow himself. I am Rastopchin, Governor of Moscow.'

"What is this undertaking?" said the Emperor, growing pale.

"Your Majesty knows it and sees it," said Rastopchin, pointing at the lake of fire, in which the holy city was sinking.

"The conflagration!"

"Yes, Sire."

"Sir, it is the work of a barbarian. Your consciousness of crime forewarns you of punishment."

"It will be my last sacrifice, Sire. I shall await it calmly."

"Sacrifice? What do you mean?"

"All my fortune was at Moscow and in my chateau. The fire originated in my dwellings. I have sacrificed every thing to my country, and my life may follow."

"Say, rather, that you have sacrificed your country, ravaging it with fire, and reducing it to ashes."

"Has your Majesty, then, been able to conquer nothing but flames and ashes?"

"The Emperor walked rapidly to and fro, his lips pale and quivering. 'What madness!' said he, 'what folly! You wish, Sir, to be the Russian Brutus; but are these your children, which you have destroyed?'

"My country will judge me, Sire."

"Your country?" and he stopped, looking at him with a searching look. "Your country? You have only offered a terrible holocaust to your sovereign. I can see that your sacrifice is nothing but the sacrifice of Moscow to Petersburg; of old Muscovy to new Russia!" Then,

approaching him, he added, with a bitter smile, 'How much have they paid you for your conflagration !'

"Rastopchin frowned and turned pale; perhaps with anger. 'Russia will judge me as well as your Majesty, and I shall be differently spoken of, Sire, when I have been shot.'

"'Shot ! that, Sir, is the punishment of brave men, and an incendiary —'

"'Cannot be a coward.'

"'Infernal mystery !' muttered Napoleon, turning from him in surprise. A few minutes after, he added ; 'If this is only a blind patriotism —' He did not conclude the sentence.

"'Your Majesty is right,' said Rastopchin, joyfully. 'I can die ?'

"'No, you do not deserve to. It would be, perhaps, hardly worth the while. Give him a safe conduct. Go, Sir. Your *undertaking* is still all your own ; but, whatever the honor of it, doubt shall tarnish it. Go.'

"Rastopchin departed, and the Emperor returned to the palace."

The following passage, in quite a different strain, is characteristic and amusing. Napoleon, before beginning his Spanish campaign, had settled all his differences with the Pope, and was on the best terms with the Catholic Church.

"Pius VII. died on the 15th of September, 1814. Napoleon was anxious about the nomination of his successor.

"It was said that he wished to proclaim himself sovereign pontiff of the Catholic Church, that his plans would end in his proclaiming himself religious chief of Christendom. Under this new power all the various sects of Christianity would be united, free and independent in their worship, and all adhering to the unity of a supreme pontiff ; but he hesitated about this scheme, and thought that the time for it had not come. The nomination of a pope, however, could not be indifferent to him. He knew how much weight religion and the influence of its ministers has on the hearts of mankind, and that this force ought not to be despised in state policy, either as an obstacle or an instrument.

"He must have reflected deeply at this time on this curious exception of an elective monarchy preserved alone in Europe. And these relics of a kind of republican system so strangely mingled with the customs of the Catholic Church, a religion wholly of authority and power, surprised, and perhaps offended him.

"In giving its new constitution to Poland, he had destroyed the right of election, and proclaimed that of hereditary sovereignty. But the innumerable difficulties which opposed the destruction of the principle of the election of popes, and of the cardinals' privileges, restrained him. He did not yet dare to take the only step which his genius thought proper, that of assuming to himself all the pontifical power. He doubted also, whether like Charlemagne he would not choose himself pope ; and, although he did not long retain this idea, he still desired to control the election of this sovereign, to whom he had lately

restored his states and a part of his temporal power. With this view, in continuing to the cardinals their great privilege of choosing their pope, he wrote to them the following letter :

“ ‘ ILLUSTRIOUS CARDINALS :

“ ‘ The Lord has taken from you the venerable and sacred pontiff, Pius VII. Your Eminences are about to choose his successor.

“ ‘ Our respectful love for our holy religion makes it a duty to us, to join by our wishes in this pious and solemn election.

“ ‘ We have considered that the interests of religion and those of the empire, as well as our own private inclinations, call to this distinguished station our venerable uncle, His Eminence Cardinal Fesch.

“ ‘ We pray the Lord to enlighten and inspire your Eminences in the performance of your sacred duty.

“ ‘ At our imperial palace of St. Cloud, Oct. 7, 1814.

“ ‘ NAPOLEON.’

“ ‘ All the cardinals of Europe were assembled, and the conclave was held in the imperial palace at Lyons.

“ ‘ The letter of Napoleon contained more than wishes, it disclosed his orders. Every cardinal replied to it with the assurance of his respect and submission. Twenty-nine cardinals were present at the conclave ; Cardinal Alexander Mattei of Rome presided over the assembly, and the operations of the ballot began.

“ ‘ They did not evince that unanimity in obedience which had been promised. The Italian prelates were displeased at seeing the tiara leave Italy, to be worn by a Frenchman ; this had not taken place since the time of Urban VI., in 1378. Some of them, moved by conscientious scruples, thought that they ought to oppose the abolition of this custom, which had indeed been consecrated by the apostolic constitutions. They knew, also, that the right of exclusion, which the sovereigns of Austria and of Spain enjoyed, had been taken from them by a secret decision, and these violations of the forms of election appeared to them like sacrilege. For these reasons eight votes were given for Cardinal Bethelmy Pacca of Benevento, as the signs of an energetic protest, but the twenty-one other voices in the first session called Cardinal Fesch to the chair of St. Peter.

“ ‘ The new pope was proclaimed at Lyons, then at Paris, and finally at Rome, whither he went in the month of December following, under the name of Clement XV. He took for his arms the imperial eagle of France.

“ ‘ Napoleon was greatly irritated by the division of the cardinals in this election ; but far from showing it, he wrote to Cardinal Pacca the following letter :

“ ‘ The votes which you received for the chair of Saint Peter have shown to me the esteem with which the sacred College regards you.

“ ‘ Their esteem is the guide to mine.

“ ‘ Let me inform your Eminence that I have transmitted to you the insignia of the grand eagle of the legion of honor, and that I present

you to his Holiness the Pope Clement XV. for the vacant seat of the archbishopric of Milan.

“ ‘I pray God that he may hold your Eminence in his high and holy keeping.
 NAPOLEON.’ ”

“ The Emperor had thought for a moment that the new pope would assume the name of Napoleon I. ; but he soon abandoned this idea, which was based in other plans, which he reserved for the future.”

The following chapter, describing the submission of the whole western continent, is interesting to an American reader :

“ The Emperor had only alluded to the last American revolution in his public address, (to the assembled kings and people of the world, when he proclaimed himself universal sovereign) ; the circumstances were published the next day ; they were read with lively interest, for this submission made Napoleon's power a universal power, and completed his world.

“ For more than twenty years, America, the land which has no history, no ancestry, no tradition ; which, to supply the places of her plundered children, had begged from Europe her superabundant population, and from Africa the purchase of her captives ; the land, which, without knowing any youth, had passed through innumerable revolutions to the decrepitude of age ; America, was falling to pieces, was sinking to complete ruin. It was naturally divided into two distinct portions : Spanish and Portuguese America, and the America of the United States. The rest of the continent, what had been the Russian and English possessions at the north, and all the West Indies, except St. Domingo, was already under the power of the Emperor.

“ As early as the first wars of Spain and Portugal, Brazil and the other States of South America had raised the standard of independence, and attempted to throw off the yoke of their mother countries ; but these attempts, weakly undertaken by men of slight talent, had only produced in those regions a chronic state of civil war, without inducing either decisive defeats or victories.

“ Bolivar alone, a man of high talent and admirable character, had in 1820 and 1821 liberated New Grenada in two victories, and founded in the heart of America a new republic, which he called Colombia, after the great Columbus. As great a statesman as warrior, he had organized the new republic, and for two years had governed it with remarkable success ; but, harassed by the ingratitude and sedition of his citizens, he had become disgusted with his country and with power, had given up both of them and retired to Jamaica, where he lived tranquil and unknown. So Colombia, like Brazil, Mexico, Peru, Paraguay, where the mysterious Dr. Francia had just died, Chili and the other Spanish possessions fell back into a sea of anarchy, misery, and civil war, and all these nations destroyed themselves, piecemeal, as it were, like bodies dying of gangrene and fever.

“ At the north, the United States displayed a spectacle no less deplorable. This nation, which was so strongly united when obliged to

conquer a common enemy, in peace and repose felt selfishness insinuate itself into its several varying interests and separate the parts of this so powerful confederacy. Certain regulations of commerce and finance desired by the northern and refused by the southern states, were the origin of this dissension among interests, which was so long protracted that it resulted in furious hate and wars, the more horrible because the combatants were brothers, whose selfishness excited them. The American Congress divided, two or three new confederations were attempted; various seats of government were established, and the young republic of Franklin and Washington perished.

"St. Domingo, the great rebel of the West Indies, which had been strong enough to resist a French expedition in the earlier days of the empire, had actually sunk under the multitude of its rulers; there were emperor, president, chief and king in this African America, and the negroes, having passed too rapidly from slavery to self-government, were ruined by gaining civilization.

"In spite of all these symptoms of dissolution in this continent, the Emperor, occupied with the conquest of the old world, appeared to have quite forgotten the new; no movement, word, or act, ever revealed his thoughts with regard to America. Doubtless, his searching mind considered from the distance the agony of these nations, and his wisdom awaited the result. Perhaps, too, there were unknown agents scattered in these countries, who pointed out the horrible state of things, and the only possible remedy, alliance with the old world, submission to the Emperor. Such language as this now began to be heard in all parts of the continent; — 'Napoleon alone can save America: at least, let us anticipate the conquest which must come. America can, by a voluntary and seasonable submission, secure to herself advantages which she will lose, if conquered. In any case, there is no safety for her, in opposition to Napoleon's monarchy.' Such were the words and thoughts which might be found in every quarter. Either germinating themselves, or sown by others, they became so evident that the governments could not oppose them. Soon senates and conventions assembled in all quarters; a rapid and ready diplomacy harmonized their deliberations. Finally, a general congress of all the sovereigns, presidents, and legislatures of the American states, was called at Panama, and met on the 7th of March, 1827. The independent island of the West Indies was summoned, as well as the chiefs of the scattered savage tribes which still existed on the continent.

"Six sessions sufficed for a great decision. Seven hundred and forty members of legislatures, kings, chiefs, or generals, were present at this congress.

"The deliberation was short. It was consent without dispute, enthusiasm without debate.

"On the 17th of March, General Jackson of the United States, the president of the congress, read, in a loud voice, the unanimous decree which placed the constitutions, the possession and government of America and St. Domingo in the hands of the Emperor Napoleon, sovereign of Europe, Asia, and the isles of the Ocean.

"This decision reached Napoleon only a few days before the 4th of July, 1827, and he kept it secret, that he might proclaim it with the more pomp in the great assembly of the Champ du Mars.

"The states of the Pacific sea had, as we have said, been conquered and overrun by the vessels of the Asiatic expedition. There was, therefore, in the whole world, no point which did not acknowledge the power of Napoleon, and the entire surface of the globe was compassed in these words, 'UNIVERSAL MONARCHY.'"

With this, the climax of Napoleon's conquests, we must, for the present, at least, leave M. Geoffroy's interesting book. The reader will readily see how wide a field is opened to the imagination, which attempts to suggest the uses which the universal sovereign would make of his terrestrial omnipotence. It is a field, which, to a certain extent, every one has travelled. It has given a foundation to innumerable air castles. The chapters which M. Geoffroy gives in this section of his work are by no means the least interesting part of it. At some future time, perhaps, we may allude to the volume again.

CHRONOLOGY.

FOREIGN.

PARIS, April 1. **BANK OF FRANCE.** The *Moniteur* publishes the account of the operations of the Bank of France during the first three months of 1842. On the 25th of March, there were 211,909,148*f.* in specie deposited in its vaults. The commercial bills discounted amounted to 152,259,492*f.*; the advances on ingots and money, to 3,023,600*f.*; the advances on public securities, to 10,662,071*f.*; the current accounts, debtors, to 16,146,188*f.*; the capital of the branch banks, to 20,000,000*f.*; the reserve, to 10,000,000*f.*; the lodgments in public securities, to 50,187,018*f.*; the hotel and furniture of the bank, to 4,000,000*f.*; and various debts and other objects, to 362,620*f.*; making the assets of the bank amount in all to 478,550,140*f.* The bank notes in circulation at the same period, exclusive of those issued by the branch banks, represented a sum of 228,180,500*f.*

and the bills to order, 1,102,969*f.* The discounts, advances, and loans on commercial bills during the three months amounted to 229,120,000*f.*; on ingots and money, to 7,335,600*f.*; on public securities, to 10,006,900*f.*; on mint bonds, to 863,700*f.*; in all, to 247,326,600*f.*

PARIS, April 21. **FRENCH TAXES.** The *Moniteur* publishes the following table of the receipts of indirect taxes for the first quarter of the present year, as compared with the corresponding quarter of the year 1841. There is an increase on the quarter, as we have before stated, of 13,088,000 francs:

	1842.	1841.
	Francs.	Francs.
Registration, dues, &c.	49,161,000	46,044,000
Stamps,	9,546,000	8,773,000
Customs, Navigation, &c.	24,563,000	20,432,000
French Colonial Sugars,	7,773,000	5,407,000
Foreign Sugars,	1,408,000	2,243,000

Indigenous Sugars,	3,326,000	2,136,000
Salt Dues (Extraction),	12,837,000	12,578,000
Salt Dues (Consumption),	2,324,000	1,830,000
Potable Liquors,	21,114,000	21,202,000
Public Carriages and other Indirect Taxes,	7,684,000	7,104,000
Tobacco Sales,	23,815,000	23,005,000
Gunpowder Sales,	1,237,000	1,092,000
Letters and Duty on sending money,	11,027,000	10,947,000
For Passengers by the Mails Postes,	521,000	497,000
Mails and Packets,	164,000	172,000

Total, 176,550,000 163,462,000

April 22. **MR. ALEXIS DE TOCQUEVILLE.** The Académie Française, properly so called, held a séance yesterday, for the purpose of inaugurating the new member, M. Alexis de Tocqueville, the celebrated author of *La Démocratie en Amérique*, already a member of the Académie des Sciences Morales. The attendance was prodigiously numerous, all the seats being occupied long before the ceremony was announced to begin, the greater portion by ladies, who appeared to take much interest in the scene, judging by the entire and unbroken attention they paid to it. At about 2 o'clock, Count Molé placed himself in the seat of the President, attired in the tasteful uniform of the "Forty" (or Immortels, as they are familiarly termed,) supported by M. de Salvandy on one side, and M. Lebrun on the other. A number of eminent men of letters also took their places in the theatre, including many of the members. We observed Messrs. Mignet, Cousin, Thiers, De Barante, Chateaubriand, Royer Collard, G. de Beaumont, Ampère, De Rémusat, Leon Faucher, Villemain, Hugo, Dupin, Rossi, De Broglie, &c. M. de Tocqueville opened the séance with his éloge of the deceased member, M. de Cessac, the course of whose existence happening to have led him into intimate connexion with the political affairs of the last century, M. de Tocqueville availed himself of this coincidence to weave into his biographical notice a commentary upon the Revolution of 1789, the Empire, and the dazzling career of its hero, Napoleon. The address of M. de Tocqueville was listened to with an attentive and sustained interest.

April 24. **STATISTICS OF FRANCE.** From a statistical account recently published, it appears that the agriculturists of France possess the following number of animals:

		Franks.
Oxen and cows,	6,681,000 est. at	877,343,000
Merino sheep,	766,310 " "	306,524,000
Common sheep,	30,845,852 " "	616,917,040
Horses & mules,	1,656,000 " "	66,105,500
Pigs,	3,900,000 " "	3,000,000
	43,849,162	1,869,790,240

From the same calculation it results, that the annual produce of the French soil amounts in value to 6,000,000,000*fr.*

BERLIN, April 22. **PRISON DISCIPLINE.** The king pays particular attention to our prisons and prison discipline. \$1,200,000 are to be expended in the erection of five large prisons (or houses of correction), at Berlin, Königsberg, Münster, and Ratisbon; at the same time a suitable addition is to be made to the salaries of the officers in all such establishments. The Queen appears to extend her benevolent attention, not only to the workhouses, but to the dangerous state in which great criminals are confined.

RUSSIAN STATISTICS. The following is a return of the quantity of wheat shipped in the Russian ports of the Black Sea, from the year 1836 to the year 1840, with the value; together with the value of all the other exports from the same ports during the same period:

Year.	Tschetverts.	Value in Paper Roubles.
1836.	7,410,006	21,150,090
1837.	1,808,654	28,034,137
1838.	2,191,617	37,257,489
1839.	2,648,667	56,046,340
1840.	1,706,653	36,440,537

Amount of all other Exports in Paper

Year.	Roubles.
1836.	25,104,984
1837.	21,424,093
1838.	25,519,211
1839.	28,072,066
1840.	28,332,668

LONDON, April 10. **POMPEY'S PILLAR IN IRELAND.** A splendid granite column, (a fac-simile of Pompey's Pillar,) has been erected at Carrick-a-Dragon, in the county of Wexford, at the cost of General Browne Clayton, who commanded the 11th Light Dragoons, at Alexandria, in 1801, in commemoration of its

much-celebrated battle, and the deeds of the heroic Abercromby. This noble pillar is 94 feet 3 inches high. It is placed in a picturesque and commanding eminence on General Clayton's estate, and can be seen, and consequently serves as a landmark, along a considerable line of coast. The architect of this splendid column, so honorable to the liberality and patriotism of the gallant General, is Mr. Cobden; and it is, we are assured, every way worthy the gallant deeds it is destined to perpetuate. It has cost several thousand pounds.

LONDON, April 24. SHIPMENTS OF COAL. It appears, from returns made to the House of Commons, that the total quantities of coal, cinders, and culm, exported to foreign countries and the British settlements abroad, in the year 1841, amounted, altogether, to 1,848,294 tons, the gross total export duties which were received thereon being £12,015 5s. 6d.

The total quantities of coal brought coastways and by inland navigation into the port of London during the year 1841, amounted to 2,942,738 tons.

LONDON, April 25. VESSELS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM. A return has been laid before Parliament, of the number of vessels above 50 tons burthen, and the total amount of their tonnage registered at each of the ports of G. Britain and Ireland, including the Channel Islands. The three chief ports in England are London, Liverpool, and Newcastle; in Scotland, (Glasgow,) including Greenock and Port Glasgow, Aberdeen, and Dundee; in Ireland, Belfast, Cork, and Dublin. The returns for these places are as follows: London, 2,405 vessels, 598,554 tons; Liverpool, 1,097 v., 307,852 t.; Newcastle, 1,143 v., 259,571 t.; Glasgow, 662 v., 187,545 t.; Aberdeen, 298 v., 52,443 t.; Dundee, 282 v., 50,060 t.; Belfast, 250 v., 44,458 t.; Cork, 221 v., 29,765 t.; Dublin, 134 v., 23,072 t. Total for England, 10,804 v., 2,033,345 t.; Scotland, 2,261 v., 429,635 t.; Ireland, 1,037 v., 165,969 t.; and for the whole of the United Kingdom, including the Channel Islands, 14,416 v. and 2,668,732 t.

LIVERPOOL, April. 26. LAUNCH OF THE HINDOSTAN STEAMSHIP. This splendid vessel, one of the finest steamers that has yet been built, was launched from the building-yard of Messrs. Wilson & Co. The day was beautifully fine, and, as the launch of a vessel of such vast bulk naturally excited great curiosity, a vast concourse of individuals of all classes assembled to witness the event. Amongst the

company present were the Earl of Sefton and a large party of nobility and gentry, several of our leading merchants and their families, and numerous respectable individuals belonging to Liverpool and its vicinity, amongst whom were many ladies. The ceremony of christening was performed by Mrs. Robertson Gladstone. The launch took place at ten minutes past twelve o'clock, and a more beautiful sight was never witnessed. There was some difficulty, at first, in moving so enormous and heavy a structure, her weight being estimated at upwards of 1,300 tons. By dint of proper mechanical appliances, she was at length set in motion, when she glided slowly and majestically into that element on which, we hope, her future career is destined to be one of prosperity and success. This magnificent steamer is of 1,800 tons burden. She is built for the Oriental Steam Navigation Company, and is intended to ply between Suez and Calcutta direct, calling at Aden and Point de Galle, in the island of Ceylon. It is hoped, that when the Hindostan gets fairly at work, the whole distance from England to Calcutta will be performed in 30 days; and if she equals the Oriental and Great Liverpool in swiftness and strength, the hope will be realized. Though larger than the Oriental, the Hindostan is on precisely the same plan; and another steamer, of the same size and construction, to be called the Bentinck, also intended for the line from Suez to Calcutta, is likewise in progress.

DOMESTIC.

RHODE ISLAND. The last Number of the Chronicle carried the review of the recent political movements in Rhode Island to the formal election, by different bodies of the people, of two entirely distinct governments, each claiming to exist on full and sufficient authority. At the time when that number was published, the last act being yet wanting to this drama, there was some doubt whether it would prove a tragedy or farce. The month of May has produced the denouement.

On the 3d of May there was a general gathering in Providence of the more active members of the "suffrage" party. The ceremonies of the day began by the formation of a procession to escort the members of the "suffrage" government to an unfinished edifice, originally intended for a foundry, which was now to be-

come, temporarily, the capitol of the State. No opposition whatever was made to the procession. About 12 o'clock it arrived at the new capitol, and there amid the strains of inspiring music, Governor Dorr, his legislature, and his procession, entered the hall prepared for them. Here they were called to order, and sixty-six members of the House having answered to their names, they proceeded to elect a Speaker, take the oaths of office, and count the votes for Governor.

As no one had voted in this pseudo-election but those who favored Mr. Dorr's revolutionary movements, he had the satisfaction of being chosen the first governor under the "People's Constitution" by an unanimous vote. He at once took the oath of office, and proceeded to read an address to the assembly. The address having been finished, the assembly, without pausing for further organization, proceeded to repeal the law passed by the constitutional assembly at its last session, [Mon. Chron. Vol. III. p. 188.] by which all these proceedings, in which they were engaged, were made treason. The rapidity with which this repeal passed spoke well for the efficiency and energy of the new government. The sheriff of the county was ordered to prepare the State House for their future meetings, the Governor was requested to notify the President, and Congress, and the Executives of the several States, of the organization of this new government, and to call upon civil and military officers to render obedience to it, and thus closed the first day of "suffrage" domination. The session of the second day was equally fruitful of important results. Several other acts of the last session were repealed; a *per diem* of \$1 was ordered to each member, and the two branches then proceeded to the various offices of government. An inspector of beef and pork was appointed, but the legislature postponed to its next session the appointment of an inspector of scythe stones, with all the other civil appointments, and proceeded immediately to choose such military officers as the new government should need. Here was a sign of the importance of the crisis. Beef and pork, of course, must be provided for, crisis or no crisis; but no question as to scythe stones, or such like matters, could be entertained in preference to military affairs. By this time there was another legislature in session, and it was not amiss to remember that there might be a resort to arms. The military were

accordingly officered, and then the legislature, mindful of the Treasury and the amount of the *per diem* having authorized the governor to appoint commissioners to go to Washington, adjourned to the 4th of July.

The constitutional legislature had met the same morning at Newport; thirty miles of Narragansett Bay separated the two bodies which represented the people of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations. These, too, took the oaths, chose their speaker, counted the votes for governor, and then *resolved*, "that a requisition be and hereby is made by this legislature upon the President of the United States, forthwith to interpose the authority and power of the United States to suppress the insurrectionary and lawless assemblages existing in conformity to the pretended constitution, to support the existing government and laws, and to protect the state from domestic violence." Having sent this requisition to Washington, this Legislature adjourned for a week to await the result.

Meanwhile several companies of U. S. troops had arrived from more southern stations, to garrison the U. S. forts in Rhode Island.

The sheriffs and officers of the state not admitting the authority of the repeal of the law which made the attendance on the suffrage assembly treason, proceeded to make arrests of some of its more prominent members, and of the officers of its government. All of these men were admitted to bail in large amounts, which in almost every instance they found. The officer who attempted to arrest Mr. Sayles, the speaker of this assembly, in Woonsocket, was so much alarmed by the assembly of a large crowd of men, that, having no force at his disposal, he liberated his prisoner. Warrants were issued against Gov. Dorr himself and Sheriff Anthony, of his government; but, although no difficulty had been found in serving other warrants, an unexpected obstacle here presented itself. The Governor had disappeared. A few days showed that he had appointed *himself*, Sheriff Anthony and Mr. D. J. Pearce, who had been arrested and had given bail, the commissioners of the suffrage government at Washington.

Mr. Arnold, a representative from Providence, declined finding bail and was committed; the next day his colleague, Mr. Willard, was also committed; a crowd assembled, declaring that they would

would rescue him, but desisted from any violence on his declaration, that he would rather be imprisoned. On arrival at the jail, however, he gave bail, as did Mr. Arnold, and both were released. This was the 10th of May. On the next day information was received from Washington of the final course to be taken by the General Government with regard to these transactions.

This course was explained by President Tyler in a letter to Governor King in answer to the requisitions of the legislature. Governor King at once published the letter in a proclamation.

"I have to inform your Excellency," said the President, "that my opinions as to the duties of this Government to protect the State of Rhode Island against domestic violence, remain unchanged. Yet, from information received by the Executive since your despatches came to hand, I am led to believe that the lawless assemblages to which reference is made, have already dispersed, and that the danger of domestic violence is hourly diminishing, if it has not wholly disappeared. I have with difficulty brought myself at any time to believe, that violence would be resorted to, or an exigency arise, which the unaided power of the State could not meet; especially as I have from the first felt persuaded, that your Excellency, as well as others associated with yourself in the administration of the government, would exhibit a temper of conciliation, as well as of energy and decision. To the insurgents themselves it ought to be obvious, when the excitement of the moment shall have passed away, that changes achieved by regular, and, if necessary, repeated appeals to the constituted authorities, in a country so much under the influence of public opinion, and by recourse to argument and remonstrance, are more likely to insure lasting blessings than those accomplished by violence and bloodshed on one day, and liable to overthrow by similar agents on another. I freely confess that I should experience great reluctance in employing the military power of this Government against any portion of the people; but, however painful the duty, I have to assure your Excellency, that if resistance is made to the execution of the laws of Rhode Island, by such force as the civil posse shall be unable to overcome, it will be the duty of this Government to enforce the constitutional guarantee—a guarantee given and adopted mutually by all the original States, of

which number Rhode Island was one, and which, in the same way, has been given and adopted by each of the States since admitted into the Union. And if an exigency of lawless violence shall actually arise, the Executive Government of the United States, on the application of your Excellency, under the authority of the resolutions of the legislature, already submitted, will stand ready to succor the authorities of the State in their efforts to maintain a due respect for the laws. I sincerely hope, however, that no such exigency may occur, and that every citizen of Rhode Island will manifest his love of peace and good order, by submitting to the laws, and seeking a redress of grievances by other means than intestine commotions."

Governor Dorr, in his capacity of commissioner, with his fellow commissioners, did not return so rapidly to Rhode Island as did the commissioners of the regular government, who brought the above communication. The suffrage party had, of course, received but little satisfaction from the President. On their return home they addressed public meetings in New York, exciting such *sympathy* for their proceedings there as they could. On the 14th of May, the Governor left New York for Stonington, and having spent the next day (Sunday) there, on Monday he proceeded to Providence in the cars, with an escort. A large procession and military escort attended him at the railroad depot, and escorted him to Federal Hill, where he made an address to the populace. In this address he expressed his regret that he had left Rhode Island; he declared that no more arrests should be permitted. Drawing a sword which he wore, he said it had belonged to an officer, who had served in Florida; that it had been dyed in blood there, and, if the suffrage cause required it, it should be dyed in blood again. He acknowledged that he had asked for volunteer military aid in New York. He had asked for 5,000 men, whom he should call upon, should there be any attempt to march U. States troops to Providence. Governor Dorr's speech was frequently interrupted with cheers, and excited great enthusiasm among his hearers.

The same day he issued a proclamation to the people. After a recapitulation of some of the incidents which we have narrated, and a declaration that the democracy of the country would support the new government, he proceeded in the following words:

"It has become my duty to say, that, as soon as a soldier of the United States shall be set in motion by whatever direction, to act against the people of this State, in aid of the charter government, I shall call for that aid, to oppose all such force, which, I am fully authorized to say, will be immediately and most cheerfully tendered to the service of the people of Rhode Island, from the city of New York, and from other places. The contest will then become national, and our State the battle-ground of American freedom.

"As a Rhode Island man, I regret that the constitutional question in this State cannot be adjusted among our own citizens. But, as the minority have asked that the sword of the National Executive may be thrown into the scale against the People, it is imperative upon them to make the same appeal to their brethren of the States: an appeal which, they are well assured, will not be made in vain. They who have been the first to ask assistance from abroad, can have no reason to complain of consequences which may ensue.

"No further arrests under the law of pains and penalties, which was repealed by the General Assembly of the people at their May session, will be permitted. I hereby direct the military, under their respective officers, promptly to prevent the same, and to relieve all who may be arrested under said law.

"As requested by the General Assembly, I enjoin upon the militia forthwith to elect their company officers; and I call upon volunteers to organize themselves without delay. The military are directed to hold themselves in readiness for immediate service."

This proclamation, like the other "suffrage" state papers, professed to be given under the seal of the State. The suffrage party had employed an artist to manufacture an imitation of the official seal, that their documents might not want any appearance of due formality.

Mr. Dorr took up his residence at the house of Sheriff Anthony, in Providence. A considerable number of armed men were assembled to defend the house in case of any attempt at attack by the charter party, and field pieces were planted around it with the same object. These martial demonstrations continued through the day of the 17th. Governor King had under his command the chartered military companies of the city of Providence under arms, and on this day he issued a general

order, commanding the officers of those of other parts of the State to report themselves immediately at the adjutant-general's office, armed and equipped for service. On the afternoon of this day, a force of Governor Dorr's volunteers seized upon the field pieces of the artillery company, the commander of which did not attempt to defend them. At seven o'clock in the evening, Governor King issued an order calling upon well disposed citizens to organize themselves for the defence of government, and despatched messengers to Newport for troops.

All this preparation seemed serious in the extreme, and the universal impression in Providence seems to have been, that before the next morning, civil war would have begun. At two o'clock at night, Governor Dorr, with about two hundred men and two cannon, marched to the arsenal, which was under the charge of Col. Blodgett, of the constitutional government. An attack had been expected, and a considerable garrison was prepared to defend the building. It was summoned in due form, the commander in due form refused to surrender, Governor Dorr ordered his artillerymen to fire at the gates, the artillerymen obeyed, and touched their linstocks to the touch-holes of the cannon; but here obedience and allegiance ceased; the cannons refused to go off; and, after igniting the priming several times, the attacking party raised the siege and retreated. Whether this failure arose from treachery, accident, or ignorance, has not been stated, and will perhaps never be generally known.

The force in the arsenal only awaited the first shot to give the besieging party a warm reception. But the *first shot* in the "Rhode Island war" was not fired in its first campaign; we trust it will never be. This night's proceedings ended more happily than could have been hoped. The Providence Express, the newspaper organ of the suffrage party, described it by saying that "there was skirmishing through the night, but no bloodshed;" a new kind of skirmishing, which no one dared to hope would continue.

This attack on the arsenal, however, was the most fiercely contested action of the campaign. The next morning the Mayor of Providence called upon all citizens who desired to maintain the peace of the city, to assemble early at the Cadets' Alarm Post, where they would be provided with arms. At the same time a paper was circulated, signed by eleven of the

Senators and Representatives of the suffrage party declining any farther connection with it, declaring that they had never contemplated carrying their constitution into effect, in opposition to the General Government, and that accordingly they resigned their offices. Several similar resignations had before been made.

Some companies of troops from without the city arrived early in the morning at the command of Governor King, and they were at once formed with the Providence companies and the volunteers for an attack on Governor Dorr's head quarters. At half-past 9 they were put in motion for this object, but meanwhile a rumor became prevalent, that Governor Dorr had fled the city. The assembled army marched as commanded to his head quarters, where Governor King and the sheriff proceeded to search the house, notwithstanding the declaration distinctly made there, that he had left the city. The suffrage volunteers then mostly dispersed; but about twenty-five of them retained their posts, standing at their cannon; the constitutional forces took stations around the house.

It was immediately ascertained that Governor Dorr had fled. The force assembled was of course sufficient to crush or disarm the few bold men who remained of his partisans. Their leaders expressed a willingness, however, to give up their cannon, and disperse voluntarily, if the government forces were drawn off, and the commander of the latter agreed to this arrangement. The suffrage leaders here had not quite the influence which they had hoped; these men drew off their cannon, and intrenched themselves with them on Federal Hill, where they spent the night, receiving some recruits. On the morning of the 19th, however, the artillery company marched up and took possession of the guns, without any resistance. The insurgents immediately dispersed.

Some curiosity was at first manifested as to Governor Dorr's disappearance, which, some of his partisans asserted, was made as the condition of a compromise. No details of any mutual arrangement have been published, however, and as no person on either side was authorized to make any, and as no person has professed to have had any share in any, it seems clear, that his flight was caused by none. Other accounts throw the blame of his disgraceful retreat on Sheriff Anthony, in whose house he had fixed his head quar-

ters. Governor Dorr himself has kept silent since his retirement.

The authority of the constitutional government is for the present entirely re-established, and, to all appearances, permanently so.

VIRGINIA, April 28. The annual election for members of the State Legislature took place. The democratic party prevailed, obtaining large majorities in each House. The result is as follows:

Senate,	Whigs 12	Opp. 20
House,	" 49	" 85
	61	105
		61

Opp. maj. on joint ballot, 44

Last year the parties were tied in the Senate, and there was a Whig majority of two in the House.

THE FLORIDA WAR. The U. S. troops in Florida, commanded by Col. Worth, in person, succeeded in bringing Halleck Tustunuggee to action, and defeating him with loss. The Indians suffered so severely in this engagement and its consequences, that Halleck "came in" a few hours after and made arrangements for the surrender of his people, amounting to about eighty persons, twenty-four of whom were warriors. This surrender took place a few days after. The Indians in Florida were reduced by it to less than two hundred, under Sam Jones, in the southern part of the peninsula, who profess to observe General Macomb's treaty, and have recently committed no acts of war.

Under these circumstances, on the 14th of May, the Secretary of War published his official directions for withdrawing the larger portion of the troops, and putting an end to hostilities.

AUGUSTA, (Maine,) May 18. The Legislature met to consider the subject of the N. E. Boundary, in obedience to Gov. Fairfield's Proclamation, [Mon. Chron. Vol. III. p. 191.] The Governor, being notified of the presence of a quorum, communicated to the two Houses the objects of the special session by message. The message was referred to a large joint committee, consisting of nine members on the part of the Senate and thirteen on the part of the House. Mr. Cavanagh is chairman of the Committee.

The message was accompanied by the letter of Mr. Webster, Secretary of State, in which he requests that the legislature may be convened, and that commissioners may be appointed, with authority on the part of the State, to treat jointly with the

government of the United States, and with Commissioners to be appointed by Massachusetts, for the establishment of a boundary line, to be agreed on by the parties, with such equivalents in territory or otherwise, as may be judged reasonable, for any departure from the treaty line. The Governor in his message states the purport of the communication made to him by the Secretary of State by order of the President, and proceeds to present his views of the question submitted. He alludes to the fact that the alternative to a settlement by a negotiation for a conventional line proposed by the general government, is the submission of the question to another arbitration, which the State of Maine has remonstrated against, and he believes will continue to remonstrate. This fact, he says, should be taken into consideration by the legislature, in deciding on the question whether they will give their assent to a direct cession of territory for an equivalent. He is of opinion, that if any thing less is intended by the Representative of Great Britain, than the offer of a just and equitable equivalent for that portion of territory which that country has heretofore claimed as her own, nothing will be accomplished in the way of an adjustment. But if Great Britain is prepared to treat on these terms, by offering a fair equivalent for territory to be ceded, in other territory, privileges of navigation or other advantages, he does not see why the question may not be thus put at rest for ever. He therefore thinks favorably of the appointment of commissioners, and cheerfully recommends the adoption of that course. The Governor expresses an earnest hope that the legislature will confine themselves to this object of their session, and that they will come to a decision with as much despatch as is consistent with due deliberation.

The joint committee, after examination of the subject, reported on the 20th several resolutions, of which the following are of most importance :

Resolved, That there shall be chosen, by ballot, in convention of both branches of the Legislature, four persons, who are hereby constituted and appointed commissioners, on the part of this State to repair to the seat of government of the United States, and to confer with the authorities of that government touching a conventional line, or line by agreement, between the State of Maine and the British Prov-

inces, and to give the assent of this State to any such line, with such terms, conditions, considerations and equivalents as they shall deem consistent with the honor and interest of the State ; with the understanding that no such line be agreed upon without the assent of such commissioners.

Resolved, That the said commissioners be furnished by the Governor with evidence of their appointment, under the seal of the State.

" Resolved, That the Governor, by and with the advice and consent of the Council, have power to fill any vacancy that may occur in said commission by death, resignation, or otherwise.

Resolved, That the said commissioners make return of their doings herein to the Governor, to be by him presented to the legislature at its next session.

These resolutions passed the Senate on the 21st, one member only dissenting.

They were then sent to the House, where an amendment was proposed, requiring as a preliminary to the negotiation a recognition of the treaty line, as understood by Maine. This amendment was negatived, yeas 60, nays 123. Another amendment was offered, proposing to submit the question to the people, to be decided upon by vote in the respective towns. This amendment was rejected, and the original resolutions were adopted by a vote of 177 to 11.

The first resolution was amended in the last line in such manner as to require the " unanimous " assent of the commissioners, to authorize the adoption of a conventional line of boundary. The Legislature closed their proceedings in reference to this subject, by making choice of the Hon Edward Kent, William P. Preble, E. Kavanagh, and John Otis, Esqs. to be commissioners under the foregoing resolutions.

The Legislature proceeded to pass a law for dividing the state into ten districts, for the choice of Representatives in Congress. There was much disagreement between the two branches of the Legislature, in relation to the composition of some of the districts, and it was only after repeated attempts at compromise, that they finally agreed in the passage of a bill. The session closed on the 30th, after a continuance of thirteen days.

NEW ORLEANS, May 19. The U. S. Cutter Woodbury arrived from Vera Cruz, bringing as passengers Mr. Ellis, late Minister to Mexico, with Mr. George W. Kendall, and other American citizens, who

had been connected with the Santa Fé expedition, and had obtained their release from imprisonment through the intercession of the American Minister. Mr Thompson, the new Minister, arrived in Mexico before the departure of Mr. Ellis, and had been accredited at that government.

Boston, May 28. The Governor of Massachusetts, with the advice and consent of the Council, by virtue of a resolve of the Legislature passed at the last session, appointed the Hon. Abbot Lawrence, John Mills, and Charles Allen, to be commissioners on the part of the Commonwealth, to give their consent to such arrangement between the General Government and the representative of the British Government for settling the boundary line between the state of Maine and the British Provinces, as they may deem to be for the interest of the Commonwealth.

UNITED STATES CONGRESS.

The proceedings of Congress during the last month have not been devoted to subjects of very deep general interest.

The Apportionment Bill was not settled on the basis which was at first proposed, which was explained in the last Number of the Chronicle, [p. 192.] After a long debate and several proposals for amendment in committee of the whole, the House receded from that basis, and adopted the ratio of 50,179, giving a House of 305 members. Another amendment, rendering the "district system" imperative on the States, was debated for several days more, and finally prevailed, and the bill as thus amended was sent up to the Senate on the 3d of May. The Senate has been engaged in discussing important amendments, but has yet come to no decision.

Both branches were occupied for a considerable part of the month in the consideration of the Civil Appropriation Bill, [see Mon. Chron. p. 192.] The Senate, having amended the bill in several particulars, in some of which they restored clauses which had been struck out by the House from the original draft of the bill, passed it on the 4th of May. The House concurred with some of these amendments, but insisted in rejecting others; and it was not till a committee of conference had reported a compromise, that

the bill passed both branches on the 15th.

A bill to provide further remedial justice in the courts of the United States occupied the attention of the Senate for several days. The bill was reported in pursuance of the recommendation of the President in his message, [Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 563.] that some provision should be made for the removal to the United States Courts of persons under trial in circumstances similar to that of McLeod, and more recently of Hogan. No action has as yet been taken on it.

Early in the month, the attention of the House was occupied by a debate, which lasted two or three days, as to the propriety of printing the report of the commissioners appointed to investigate the affairs of the New York Custom House. As the commission was ordered by the President, it was argued, that with the President rested the question of the propriety of its publication. This debate arose on a motion to reconsider the order to print, and, as the House did not reconsider, the report of Mr. Poindexter, a member of the commission, was published in a few days. Each of the commissioners made separate reports, going at length into the subject.

Some conversation took place at different periods of the month in the Senate, with reference to the disturbances in Rhode Island; but the Senate took no action, and adopted no resolution on the subject.

On the 9th of May, the Secretary of the Treasury sent to the House, at their request, his plan for a tariff of imports to take the place of the present tariff during the ensuing summer. No action has as yet been taken by Congress, and we reserve a sketch of it until we have to mention the debates upon it.

Mr Giddings, [see Mon. Chron. Vol. III. p. 191,] having returned to his constituents, proceeded to canvass the district as a candidate for immediate reelection. The result was his election by a vote of 7,469; 3,943 votes being given to Mr. Edwards, his opponent. Mr. Giddings then returned to Washington, and on the 4th of May resumed his seat.

The bills making appropriations for the naval and military service have undergone long discussion in the House, chiefly on propositions to reduce the amount of appropriation. As neither of these bills was passed, we defer a notice of the proceedings upon them to our next Number.

THE MONTHLY CHRONICLE.

JUNE, 1842.

ARTICLE VIII.

THE NORTHEASTERN BOUNDARY OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE attempt to compromise the long-agitated question of the Boundary Line between the State of Maine, and the provinces of New Brunswick and Canada, by a negotiation on a new basis, in which the governments of the States immediately interested are invited to become parties, having opened a prospect of an amicable adjustment of the matter in controversy, we take this opportunity of giving a brief review of the present state of question.

The state of Maine, which claims the right of jurisdiction and sovereignty over the territory in controversy, and the state of Massachusetts, of which Maine was formerly a part, and which in consequence is entitled, by the terms of separation, to a property of one undivided moiety in the said lands, have both maintained, that as the terms of the treaty of peace of 1783 are so explicit and intelligible as to leave no question of the validity of their claim to the territory, the national government has no right, without the express consent of the states thus interested, to make any cession to Great Britain, for the settlement of the matter in dispute, of any portion of the territory embraced within the limits defined in the treaty, according to their interpretation of it.

It is apparent that a portion of the territory in dispute would be a much less valuable possession to the state of Maine, than to the adjoining provinces of New Brunswick and Canada, as it forms a part of the line of direct communication between the two provinces, while it is detached and remote from the settled

parts of the state of Maine, and as it has no water communication with the ocean, except by passing through the province of New Brunswick. There is also another motive on the part of the British Government for wishing to retain it; namely, that it has been settled in part by people from the adjoining portions of the British provinces, who regard themselves as under British jurisdiction, and from whom that government, on that account, is unwilling to withdraw its protection. Under these circumstances, it has been supposed that it might be advantageous to both parties, to enter into a negotiation for the establishment of a new line of boundary, by either a mutual cession of territory, or a cession on one part, in consideration of a grant of privileges of navigation by the other, or of other advantages which may be regarded as an equivalent for the territory ceded. To admit of a negotiation on this principle, it was necessary to obtain the concurrence of the governments of the two states above named. The legislatures of those states have accordingly passed resolves authorizing such a negotiation in concert with the general government, by commissioners appointed for the purpose.

The legislatures of both states, in granting the authority for such a negotiation, assumed the ground of the unquestioned title of the United States, to all the territory claimed by them, under the treaty. Their respective commissioners will consequently hold themselves bound to demand in exchange for any of this territory which may be relinquished, some other territory, or privilege, which shall be regarded as a full equivalent. There is reason to apprehend, that the assertion of this claim may operate to the defeat of any successful negotiation. The individual states, however, are not regarded by Great Britain as parties to the negotiation, although their assent to the terms is a necessary preliminary, to any successful negotiation by the government of the United States. It is too late for the government of the United States to take the ground, that their claim does not admit of any doubt, however confidently they may argue the validity of the claim, because it has been repeatedly conceded to be matter in controversy requiring to be adjusted by negotiation, or arbitration. It must be admitted, also, that however strong and indisputable is the argument of the United States in support of their claim to the greater part of the territory in dispute, it is equally unquestionable, that as to the precise delineation of the boundary line, there is much to be settled; that on the border of Vermont there is a strip of territory under the actual jurisdiction of that state, which lies north of the true line of the 45th parallel of latitude, and is consequently not within the limits of that state, as defined by the treaty of 1783; that on the border of New

Hampshire there is a tract of territory claimed and occupied by that state, their title to which under the treaty is questionable; and that even in regard to the frontier of Maine, the authorities of that state have given an interpretation to the treaty, which is extremely questionable, and by which they claim a tract of some 400,000 acres, not very obviously embraced within the limits defined by that instrument. There is, therefore, the best reason, on the part of the United States, for entering into a negotiation of this question, on the basis of mutual cessions, and the grant of mutual equivalents, for the tracts so to be added.

By the astronomical observations which were made by direction of the commissioners under the treaty of Ghent, it was ascertained to the satisfaction of both commissioners, that the limit of the jurisdiction of the state of Vermont, as it has been possessed from the settlement of the state, extends from a half-mile to a mile north of the 45th parallel of latitude, and that the site of a fort at Rouse's Point, on which the government of the United States expended some \$200,000, is within the limits of Canada as defined by the treaty of 1783.

It was also ascertained, we believe, on investigation, that the principal branch of the Connecticut River north of the 45th degree of latitude has from time immemorial been known by the name of the Connecticut, as far as a lake which is known by the same name, and that the more westerly branches of the river have, during the same period, been known by other names. If this be true, there would seem to be room for doubt, whether the claim of the authorities of New Hampshire to have the branch called the *Indian Stream*, regarded as that branch of the Connecticut which is described by the treaty, is well founded. In the year 1835, the government of New Hampshire took possession of the small tract of territory situated between the main branch of the Connecticut and the Indian Stream, by military force. Since that time, the British claim to that territory has lain dormant, but the question of title has never been settled between the two governments, and it will probably be embraced in the negotiations on the present occasion.

But the principal question to be settled is to determine that part of the boundary line which intervenes between the northwest angle of Nova Scotia, now New Brunswick, and the northwesternmost head of Connecticut River. This question is in fact attended with less real difficulty than either of the other two, except that from the greater magnitude of the interest involved in it, a more resolute effort has been made to divert the attention of inquirers from the true points of the question. We do not propose to argue the question, but shall content ourselves with pre-

senting a brief statement of it, and of the authorities on which the decision must rest.

It must be understood, that from the cession of Canada to Great Britain, in 1763, to the breaking out of the American war, and the declaration of American Independence, the whole of the territories bordering upon the region now in dispute was divided between three provinces, owing allegiance to the crown of Great Britain. These provinces were Massachusetts Bay, then including what is now the State of Maine, the province of Nova Scotia, and the province of Quebec. There was no territory whatever, in those parts, belonging to Great Britain, or any other power, which was not included within the limits and jurisdiction of one or other of these three provinces.

The territories of Massachusetts Bay were held under the charter of William and Mary, granted in the year 1691, and were bounded by Nova Scotia on the east, and by Canada on the north, their precise limits being not very clearly defined, and having been from time to time subject to some dispute. But on the acquisition of Canada by Great Britain, all doubts were removed by authentic acts of the Crown, so clear and intelligible as to leave no room for dispute. By a proclamation of King George III., dated October 7, 1763, it was declared, that with the advice of the privy council, he had granted letters-patent, under the great seal, to erect four governments within the territories recently ceded. One of these was the government of Quebec, the boundary of which, on the south and east, was described in the following words: "From whence the said line, crossing the River St. Lawrence, and the Lake Champlain in forty-five degrees of north latitude, *passes along the highlands which divide the rivers that empty into the said River St. Lawrence, from those which fall into the sea*; and also along the north coast of the Baye des Chaleurs, and the coast of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, to Cape Rosieres." In the year 1774, this same boundary of the province of Quebec, was confirmed by the act of Parliament "for making more effectual provision for the government of the province of Quebec." In the first section of this act, the boundaries are defined, and in this description we find the following words: "Bounded on the south by a line *from the Bay of Chaleurs, along the highlands which divide the rivers that empty themselves into the River St. Lawrence from those which fall into the sea to a point in 45 degrees of north latitude.*" The language of these descriptions is in no respect doubtful or ambiguous. It was never supposed by any one to grant to the province of Quebec any territory south of the River Ristigouche, which falls into the Bay of Chaleurs, or to embrace any territory south or east of

the extreme sources of the River St. John, nor has the government of Canada, from that day to this, ever exercised or claimed any jurisdiction beyond these limits. These definitions of the southern boundary of the province of Quebec, of course, established the northern boundary of the province of Massachusetts Bay. This province had previously claimed an extension of territory to the shore of the St. Lawrence, and on this occasion the province protested against this narrowing of her limits, but her protest was without avail.

In the same year in which the boundaries of the province of Quebec were established, 1763, a royal commission was granted to Montague Wilmot, Esq., appointing him Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief over the province of Nova Scotia, and in his commission the limits of that province, on the north and west, are thus described, namely: "To the northward, our said province shall be bounded *by the southern boundary of our province of Quebec*, as far as the western extremity of the Bay des Chaleurs; to the eastward by the said bay and the Gulf of St. Lawrence;" "and to the westward, although our said province hath anciently extended, and doth of right extend, as far as the River Pentagoet, or Penobscot, it shall be bounded by a line drawn from Cape Sable across the entrance of the Bay of Fundy, *to the mouth of the River St. Croix, by the said river to its source, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the southern boundary of our colony of Quebec.*" This description shows what was then established as the western boundary of Nova Scotia, although an extension farther west had been previously claimed, and it consequently shows what was, from that time, acknowledged to be the eastern limit of the province of Massachusetts Bay.

Lest it should be supposed that there might have been a change in these boundaries between the dates here stated and the signature of the treaty of peace in the year 1783, it may be proper to state, that on the 18th of September, 1777, Frederic Haldimand, Esq. was appointed Governor-in-Chief of the province of Quebec, and that in his commission of that date the boundaries of the province are described in part as follows: "Bounded on the south *by a line from the Bay of Chaleurs, along the highlands which divide the rivers that empty themselves into the River St. Lawrence from those which fall into the sea, to a point in 45 degrees of north latitude, on the eastern branch of the River Connecticut.*" Under this commission Mr. Haldimand remained in office until after the treaty of peace of 1783. So also at the date of the treaty of 1783, John Parr, Esq. was Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of the province of Nova Scotia under a commission, in which the boundaries of his government are described

in part as follows, namely : " Bounded on the westward by a line drawn from Cape Sable across the entrance of the Bay of Fundy, to the mouth of the River St. Croix, *by the said river to its source, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the southern boundary of our colony of Quebec, to the northward by said boundary, as far as the western extremity of the Bay of Chaleurs,*" &c.

These descriptions are so clear and specific as to defy doubt or misinterpretation. The southern boundary of Quebec was a continuous line of highlands from the Bay of Chaleurs to the head of Connecticut River, excluding from that colony every part of the territory watered by the River St. John. The western boundary of Nova Scotia, was the River St. Croix and a line running due north from the source of that river to the southern boundary of Quebec. All the territory south of the former of these two lines and west of the latter, of course belonged to Massachusetts Bay, as it is perfectly clear that it belonged neither to Quebec, nor to Nova Scotia, and there was no other party to claim it.

Such were the boundaries of these three provinces at the date of the Declaration of Independence, and also at the date of the treaty of peace in 1783, and in conformity with these boundaries was the actual possession and jurisdiction of the three governments, as they are shown by actual transcripts from the commissions of the governors of two of the three provinces. And what saith the treaty of peace, made between Great Britain on the one part, and the thirteen United States, of which Massachusetts Bay was one, on the other? By the first article of this treaty, his Britannic Majesty acknowledges the independence of the United States, including Massachusetts Bay, and in express terms "*relinquishes all claims to the government, property, and territorial rights of the same, and every part thereof.*" The provinces of Nova Scotia and Quebec not being among those which united in the declaration of independence, and in the treaty of peace, their territorial rights were of course not ceded to the United States, but the western and southern boundaries of these two provinces were declared to be the eastern and northern boundaries of the United States, and all possessions beyond these boundaries were relinquished to the United States.

But this is not all, nor the most material part of the treaty bearing upon this question. To remove all doubt in regard to the existing limits of the respective provinces, which it was proposed to confirm or perpetuate, the treaty goes on to define, in clearer language, if possible, than that which had been previously used in proclamations, acts of Parliament, and royal commissions, the limits of the territory "*relinquished*" to the United States, in

the words following, namely: "That all disputes which might arise in future, on the subject of the boundaries of the said United States, may be prevented, it is hereby agreed and declared, that the following are and shall be their boundaries, namely, *from the northwest angle of Nova Scotia*, namely, that angle which is formed by a line due north from the source of St. Croix River to the highlands; *along the said highlands which divide those rivers that empty themselves into the River St. Lawrence, from those which fall into the Atlantic Ocean*, to the northwesternmost head of Connecticut River," &c.; and, after describing other parts of the boundary, "east by a line drawn along the middle of the River St. Croix, from its mouth in the Bay of Fundy to its source, and *from its source directly north to the aforesaid highlands*, which divide the rivers that fall into the Atlantic Ocean from those which fall into the River St. Lawrence." It is apparent, that with some slight change of language in these clauses of the treaty, from that which is used in the documents before cited, there is no change of meaning. The same highlands must have been intended in the treaty, as are described in the proclamation and act of Parliament, unless we are to suppose that the treaty contained contradictory provisions in the same article.

It is a remarkable fact in the history of this controversy, that for a period of more than thirty years after the conclusion of this treaty, there never was the slightest doubt entertained by any one, that the meaning of this clause was precisely in conformity with the interpretation which we now give to it. Hundreds of maps had been drawn and published, and geographical descriptions written, both in Great Britain and in this country, from the date of the proclamation of 1763, to the publication of Col. Bouchette's topographical description of the province of Lower Canada, in 1815, and there is not to be found in one of them, as far as we have been able to ascertain the fact, the slightest intimation, that the highlands referred to in the treaty, as indicating the established boundary between the two countries, were other than those which are situated at the north and west of the head waters of the St. John. The author of the work above named, after describing the height of land from the source of Connecticut River to the northwest angle of New Brunswick, "on which," as he remarks, "the boundary is supposed to pass," describes a more southerly ridge, situated south of the St. John, which he says "ought more fairly to be understood" as the boundary, "thereby equitably dividing the waters flowing into the St. Lawrence from those which empty into the Atlantic, within the limits of the United States." For this opinion, which appears to be the first suggestion offered

to the public, that these highlands could be made to correspond with the description in the treaty, this author gives no reasons. Subsequent British writers adopted the suggestion, and have endeavored to convince the British public, that there are plausible grounds at least, for applying to these more southerly highlands the description in the treaty.

The commissioners appointed under the fifth article of the treaty of Ghent, to survey this part of the boundary, and to determine the position of the northwest angle of Nova Scotia, or New Brunswick,* described in the treaty, after having executed various other parts of their commission, began to survey the line running directly north from the monument, previously erected at the source of the St. Croix, towards the highlands. The running of this line was of course necessary for the designation of the northwest angle of New Brunswick; the point sought being the intersection of the line with the northern boundary of the province, or what is the same thing, with the southern boundary of the province of Quebec, or Lower Canada. The surveying party proceeded quietly and harmoniously until they reached a height of land called Mars Hill, situated about forty miles north from the monument, and about an equal distance from the point where the line, if continued, would cross the River St. John. Here, said the British commissioner, no doubt to the astonishment of his associates in the survey, are the highlands, which divide the waters falling into the St. Lawrence, from those which fall into the Atlantic Ocean, and here is to be established the northwest angle of Nova Scotia. It was in vain represented to him, that they had not reached the highlands, from which the waters on the north side thereof flow into the St. Lawrence, and that this meridian line, forming the westerly boundary line of New Brunswick, must yet be a long way extended, before it could meet the northern boundary, and thereby form the northwest angle. Here, notwithstanding, he persisted in establishing the northwest angle, and what is more surprising, the British Government so far ratified his proceeding, as to suspend the survey, and to demand the reference of the question to the arbitration of a friendly power, in conformity with the provisions of the treaty of Ghent.

The heights of Mars Hill do not answer the description of the highlands referred to in the treaty, in any one particular. Instead of dividing waters which flow into the St. Lawrence, from those which flow directly into the Atlantic, this height divides only

* The reader must recollect, that a part of the territory, which at the date of the treaty formed the province of Nova Scotia, is now New Brunswick, — what was then called the province of Quebec, is now Canada, and recently called Lower Canada, and what then formed a part of Massachusetts Bay, is now the state of Maine.

waters which flow through one channel into the St. John, from those which flow through another channel into the same river; for the meridian line from the monument, before reaching Mars Hill, crosses two branches of the St. John. It forms no part of the ridge of highlands, extending from the source of Connecticut River to the Bay of Chaleur, for the valley of the river St. John interposes directly between it and the Bay of Chaleur. It forms no part of the southern boundary of Quebec or Canada, for the government of Canada never extended its jurisdiction to any place within seventy miles of it. It forms no part of the "aforesaid highlands," meaning the highlands which form the northern boundary of New Brunswick, and consequently one side of the northwest angle, because the northern boundary of New Brunswick is well known to be sixty or seventy miles further north, though perhaps not precisely defined by any authentic act. The intervening country has been, from the date of the treaty to the present time, under the jurisdiction of New Brunswick; counties and parishes have been established there, by the provincial legislature of New Brunswick, and the inhabitants vote in the elections of New Brunswick, pay taxes into its treasury, and perform military duty under its officers. A part of New Brunswick north of Mars Hill, which has been thus occupied from the date of the treaty, extends along both branches of the St. John River for a distance of more than forty miles, and still further, to the highlands north of that river, in which the River Ristigouche has its source. These are the highlands extending from the source of the Connecticut River to the Bay of Chaleur. On their approach to this bay, they are intersected by the River Ristigouche and its branches, and it may perhaps be still made a question, which ridge of the highlands thus intersected, shall be taken as the highlands of the treaty. This was a question to be determined many years ago, for fixing the limits between the provinces of Quebec and Nova Scotia, or between Lower Canada and New Brunswick, under the commissions of their respective governors. It has been in fact long since determined, though perhaps by no formal and definitive act. The practical construction which has been given to the language of the proclamation of 1763, the Quebec act, and the several royal commissions, we believe is, to regard the highlands on both sides of the river as equally included within the description in those documents, and to avoid any conflict of jurisdiction, the river which divides them was assumed as the boundary line. The River Ristigouche, which flows into the Bay of Chaleurs, has accordingly become the boundary between Canada and New Brunswick, instead of the highlands extending to the bay, either on the north or south of that river. This adjustment of the question of

boundary between those two provinces, if definitively settled and formally recognized by the provincial authorities and the British Government, might be considered as sufficiently indicating the northerly side of the angle of Nova Scotia, described in the treaty, at least so far as to be conclusive against that government, if our own acquiesced in the decision. But whether it be so or not, is not very material. It is sufficiently apparent, from the uniform exercise of jurisdiction by the authorities of New Brunswick over the whole territory, extending to the Ristigouche River, and the forbearance of those of Canada to claim any to the south of that river, that the governments of both provinces, and of Great Britain, fully understood at the time when the treaty was made, and at periods long subsequent, that the northwest angle of Nova Scotia was situated in the regions some twenty or thirty miles north of the St. John.

If it be assumed, that the northern boundary of New Brunswick is not definitively settled, by any act of the British Government, and that it is yet to be settled, in literal conformity with the language of the treaty, such a determination of it cannot be attended with any difficulty. The angle described is one formed at the point where a line running due north from the source of the St. Croix intersects the highlands. Admitting, therefore, that the highlands running from the source of the Connecticut River, and terminating at the Bay of Chaleur, are divided into two or more ridges by streams running into the Bay of Chaleur, the point where the line drawn from the St. Croix first strikes the said highlands, must be regarded as the angle formed, on one side by the highlands.

Whether one assumption or the other be taken — that is, the boundary line as practically settled and acquiesced in by the two provinces, or the literal description of the highland line by treaty — there is but a trifling difference in the position of the point at which the northwest angle is to be established; this point in either case being about twenty or twenty-five miles north of the Great Falls of the St. John River.

When, therefore, the royal commissioner appointed under the treaty of Ghent, and sworn and instructed to ascertain the point designated in the treaty of 1783, as the northwest angle of Nova Scotia, and to determine the latitude and longitude of it, saw fit to designate Mars Hill as the position of that angle, he assumed what was at variance with facts, notorious to every person in the province. He assumed that an angle could be found, or imagined, in the middle of a straight line, where there is no line meeting it within a space of sixty miles. He assumed also, that the position of the northwestern angle was some sixty or seventy miles

distant from the line necessary to form its northerly side, when he knew that the intervening territory was regarded, by the British construction of the limits of their own territory, as belonging to New Brunswick.

That the territory intervening between Mars Hill and the highlands north of the St. John was embraced within the actual jurisdiction of the province of New Brunswick, and not of that of Canada, is a fact which will not be denied. The statute books of New Brunswick, as well as the records of its courts, afford abundant proofs of it. There is ample proof of it among the documents which have been published by the British Government relating to this controversy. For example, Sir John Harvey, late Lieutenant-Governor of New Brunswick, in his letter to Mr. Fox, of April 16, 1840, speaking of the part of the disputed territory north of Mars Hill, which was taken possession of by the militia of the state of Maine, in the winter of that year, says: "The whole of which territory had, up to that period, continued in the possession of Great Britain, and *had provisionally constituted an integral part of New Brunswick, subject to its laws and acknowledging no other jurisdiction*, namely, the valley of Aroostook," &c. Sir John Harvey, for the purpose of showing conclusively the jurisdiction of New Brunswick over the Madawaska settlement, the whole of which is situated at the north of the highlands of Mars Hill, and extends nearly to the highlands north of the St. John, refers in the same despatch above quoted, to a memorandum enclosed, from the Chief Justice of the province, in which the limits of the Madawaska settlement are described. In this memorandum the Chief Justice says, that the Madawaska settlers "have from time to time set down upon the lands, some under grants from the government of New Brunswick, and many without title. The lower limit of these settlements, as they existed in March, 1839, may be stated to be the Great Falls, and the upper limit the River St. Francis, and the settlements are made on both banks of the river." "The French settlers throughout this part of the country, without any distinction between those in the upper, and those in the lower parts of it, are known in New Brunswick by the common appellation of the 'Madawaska settlers,' and own a common allegiance to the crown of Great Britain. *The authorities of this province have always deemed their jurisdiction to extend alike to all parts of these settlements*, and there are many instances of the exercise of this jurisdiction, on record. These settlements, it will be observed, are situated along both banks of the St. John River, directly north of the height called Mars Hill, at a distance of forty or fifty miles, and we are thus presented with the phenomenon of a northwest angle of the province, established at a

position directly south of a tract of country over which the "authorities of the province have always deemed their jurisdiction to extend." The Madawaska territory, here described, is situated chiefly at the west of the meridian line, passing through the source of the St. Croix, and for that reason such part of it as lies west of that line, is claimed by the United States. It lies also south of the southern boundary of Canada, as is shown by the memorandum of the Chief Justice of New Brunswick, here cited, and as New Brunswick is bounded northerly on the southern line of Canada, the real northwest angle is to be found at the north, and not at the south of this territory. Adjoining the Madawaska territory, and immediately east of the meridian line above referred to, is situated the parish of Kent. This parish was incorporated by the provincial legislature of New Brunswick, in the year 1821, by an act "to erect the upper part of the county of York into a town or parish," and it includes "all that part of the county of York lying above the parish of Wakefield, on both sides of the river St. John." In this parish of Kent, are situated the valuable mill privileges upon the grand falls of the St. John. The parish of Wakefield, which lies south of Kent, but north of Mars Hill, and adjoins the mouth of the Aroostook River, was incorporated by the provincial Parliament of New Brunswick in 1803, and it then embraced the whole of the upper, or northern part of the county of York, including what is now the parish of Kent. The county of York, which extends to the River Ristigouche on the north, is bounded on the east by the county of Gloucester, which county is bounded also on the north by the Ristigouche. In the county of Gloucester, at the mouth of the River Ristigouche, and at its junction with the Bay of Chaleur, is situated the town of Dalhousie, the most northerly town of the province of New Brunswick.

The fact of the actual extension of the counties of York and Gloucester to the River Ristigouche, and of the claim by the authorities of New Brunswick, of the Madawaska territory as within the jurisdiction of New Brunswick, and not of Canada, must have been known to the commissioner, appointed by the king of Great Britain to ascertain the position of the northwest angle of New Brunswick. It is, therefore, difficult to account for his resolution to establish the angle at a point so far short of the well-known northerly extension of the province. The precise position at which the meridian line should terminate, whether at the River Ristigouche, or at the highlands very near it, at the south, or even in the highlands at the north of that stream, he might plead ignorance of, without exciting any surprise; but that instead of seeking in the northerly parts of the county of York for the required angle, he should attempt to establish it at the southerly

part of the county, is a fact so remarkable as to justify the inference that he was not desirous of agreeing with the American commissioner, in the designation of the said angle. Why so flimsy a pretext for discontinuing the survey, as that the angle sought was to be found at Mars Hill, was for a moment submitted to, by the American Government, and permitted to be the ground of discontinuing the labors of the commission, and referring the question to the arbitration of a friendly power, is a matter on which the public have had no information. It might have been expected that a perversion of the language of the treaty of 1783 so gross and palpable, would be at once protested against, as a manifest violation of the duty enjoined by the treaty of Ghent, and that if the survey could not be proceeded in, in the spirit of both treaties, all proceedings for terminating the controversy on the basis of this commission, would have here terminated.

We are fully aware, that there was a pretext for discontinuing the survey of the meridian line at Mars Hill, at the point marked B on the annexed map, instead of continuing it to C, or A, the points which we assume to be in the highlands described by the treaty. This pretext was, that the St. John River was not intended, by the framers of the treaty, as one of the rivers that fall into the Atlantic, and that, therefore, the description does not necessarily indicate highlands at the north of the St. John. It will be perceived, that in the foregoing remarks those parts of the description of the boundary line given in the treaty, which are independent of any reference to the course and termination of the St. John, have been chiefly relied on, and that so far as regards the authority for assuming the highlands north of that river, as the highlands of the treaty, it is immaterial whether the river flows into the Atlantic Ocean, or into the Red Sea. It is of no consequence in reference to the identity of highlands extending from the source of the Connecticut River to the Bay of Chaleur, and continuously dividing streams flowing to the right and left, what is the termination of the streams so divided. It is sufficient that there is a continuous ridge of highlands extending between the two extreme points named, and the only such ridge, is that which encircles the sources of the St. John, on the west and north. So also, the position of the northwest angle of Nova Scotia is identified beyond the power of contradiction, as situated directly at the north of the St. John River, and if it were conclusively shown that that river falls into no ocean whatever, it would in no degree weaken the evidence afforded by the treaty, that the highlands designated as forming the northern boundary of Maine, are those which lie north of that river, or that the eastern boundary line,

required to be drawn from the St. Croix River, "directly north to the aforesaid highlands," instead of terminating at Mars Hill, must of necessity be extended across the St. John River, for the purpose of completing the boundary defined by the treaty. Again, it is shown, independently of any consideration of the termination of the St. John River, that no claim has ever been made by any British authority, that the limits or jurisdiction of the province of Canada extended to the south of that river, as the same were described in the proclamation of 1763, or the act of Parliament of 1774, or the commission of Mr. Haldimand, who was governor-in-chief of the province of Quebec in 1783; but it has been merely contended that the jurisdiction of that tract of territory was in the British crown, as appurtenant to the province of New Brunswick. Now it does not depend upon the question, whether the St. John falls into the Atlantic Ocean or not, where the western boundary of New Brunswick is to be placed. It was declared in the commission of King George III. to Montague Wilmot, Esq., Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of the province of Nova Scotia, in 1763, and also in the commission of John Parr, Esq., Governor of the same province in 1783, as well as in the treaty of peace of that year, that the said province of Nova Scotia was, and should be bounded on the west, by a line running directly north from the source of the St. Croix, to the highlands which formed the southern boundary of the province of Quebec.

It will be seen, therefore, that as regards the evidence of the identity of the highlands described in the treaty, it is quite immaterial whether the river St. John is to be considered, in strictness of language, as running into the Atlantic Ocean, or not. It is nevertheless true, that this river is not only evidently intended by the framers of the treaty, and most properly described as in the class of rivers which fall into the Atlantic Ocean, in contradistinction from another class, which fall into the river St. Lawrence. It is a river of 400 miles in extent, which is discharged directly into the Bay of Fundy, an arm of the Atlantic Ocean, and through that bay into the ocean itself, at a distance of about 50 miles. In precisely the same manner the other rivers embraced in the class of Atlantic rivers, — the Penobscot, Kennebec, and Connecticut, — discharge their waters into bays, and through them into the ocean, and no one of them directly into the ocean. The only difference is, that the distance is somewhat greater, from the immediate termination of the other rivers respectively, to the ocean, than from that of St. John. Yet this difference is not so great as to leave the slightest doubt as to the intention of those who drew the treaty, to include this river within the class of rivers falling into the Atlantic. That such was their meaning is apparent from

the fact, that any other interpretation makes entire nonsense of the whole passage, besides leaving the most important of the tract of territory embraced in the description wholly unnoticed. So obvious is it, that such was the meaning of the framers of the treaty, especially when it is known that Mitchell's map * was before them at the time when they wrote and assented to the treaty, that to attribute to them any other meaning, must be to suppose them to be destitute of common sense. It is, in fact, to render this whole part of the treaty senseless and nugatory.

Mitchell's map, by which the commissioners were governed in framing the description of the boundaries of the territory relinquished to the States by the treaty, although in many respects inaccurate, particularly in the delineation of the course of rivers, was free from any material error in its general features. So far as regards the description in the treaty of the part of the boundary in question, there is no ground for supposing that the commissioners were led into any error, or to the adoption of a different language in that description, from what they would have used had they been possessed of the most perfect map of the country which can now be formed. It was apparent from a view of that map, that the meridian line from the source of the river St. Croix,

* That the commissioners who framed the treaty relied for their knowledge of the country upon Mitchell's map, is proved by the testimony of two of them, Mr. Adams, and Dr. Franklin. The latter states the fact in the following terms, in a letter written at the time of the investigation, preparatory to the convention for determining what river was intended in the treaty under the name of the St. Croix :

" PHILADELPHIA, April 8, 1790.

" SIR: I received your letter of the 31st of last past, relating to encroachments made on the eastern limits of the United States, by settlers under the British Government, pretending that it is the *western*, and not the *eastern* river of the Bay of Passamaquoddy which was designated by the name of St. Croix in the treaty of peace with that nation, and requesting of me to communicate any facts, which my memory or papers may enable me to recollect, and which may indicate the true river, which the commissioners on both sides had in their view to establish as the boundary between the two nations. Your letter found me under a severe fit of my malady, which prevented my answering it sooner, or attending, indeed, to any kind of business. I can now assure you that I am perfectly clear in the remembrance, that the map we used in tracing the boundary, was brought to the treaty by the commissioners from England, and that it was the same that was published by Mitchell, above twenty years before. Having a copy of that map by me in loose sheets, I send you that sheet which contains the Bay of Passamaquoddy, where you will see that part of the boundary traced. I remember, too, that in part of the boundary, we relied much on the opinion of Mr. Adams, who had been concerned in some former disputes concerning those territories. I think, therefore, that you may obtain some further light from him. That the map we used was Mitchell's map, Congress were acquainted at the time, by letter to their Secretary for Foreign Affairs, which I suppose may be found upon their files.

" I have the honor to be, with the greatest esteem and respect, Sir, your most obedient and most humble servant,

" B. FRANKLIN.

" To Thomas Jefferson,
Secretary of State of the United States."

would cross the St. John, and meet the highlands on the north of that river, and consequently that in conformity with the description in the treaty, the whole country watered by the upper branches of the St. John, which is there laid down as a part of New England, would be relinquished to the United States. It is, therefore, an obvious and necessary inference, that such was the intention of the framers of the treaty.

It is intimated above, that a claim has been made in behalf of the State of Maine, of some 400,000 acres of territory, not obviously embraced within the limits defined in the treaty. The claim here referred to, is that which embraces a tract of mountain territory, extending to the highlands, which are to be found north of the tributaries of the River Ristigouche, on the assumption that the line drawn due north from the St. Croix, is to be extended across the head branches of the Ristigouche, to the point indicated on the annexed map at A, instead of terminating at the point C. It is maintained, that the River Ristigouche is to be considered, in the meaning of the treaty, as belonging to the class of waters which fall into the Atlantic Ocean. If we were speaking of rivers extending from the inland parts of the continent, over the whole eastern section, in contradistinction from rivers which flow into the Pacific Ocean, or the Gulf of Mexico, it might not be inappropriate to embrace the streams falling into the Gulf of St. Lawrence under the general description of rivers which empty themselves into the Atlantic Ocean. But when rivers falling into the Atlantic Ocean are spoken of in contradistinction merely from others falling into the River St. Lawrence, it can hardly be admitted that this description will embrace those which fall into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, especially in the absence of any collateral evidence that they were intended to be so included. In the present case, there does not appear to be the least reason to suppose, that in the description of the southern boundary of the province of Quebec, in the proclamation of 1763, or in the act of Parliament of 1774, the description of rivers which fall into the sea was intended to embrace rivers falling into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, or that the description of highlands was intended to apply to those north of the Ristigouche, to the exclusion of those on the south. If such be a true construction of this part of the treaty, the mountainous tract at the sources of the Ristigouche, between the points indicated on the map, marked A, E, and C, is not included within the limits of the United States.

The question in regard to this part of the claim is chiefly important because it has given rise to the impression that a delineation of the line of boundary in literal compliance with the description in the treaty is impracticable, without assuming that the Ristigouche is a river which falls into the Atlantic. It will be



seen, from what has been stated above, that this supposition is altogether unfounded. The highlands, extending from the source of the Connecticut River to the Bay of Chaleur, are distinctly defined, until they reach the point E on the map. They here separate into two irregular ridges, being intersected by the waters flowing into the Bay of Chaleur, both which ridges form part of the range described in the treaty. The point where the due north line meets this ridge, (unless an intermediate point between the two ridges is substituted by some act assented to by the two governments,) is the northwest angle of Nova Scotia, and consequently the point at which the northern boundary of the United States begins.

Such is our understanding of the treaty. The strength of the American claim has been obscured and weakened, by some inadvertent admissions. Surely nothing but a gross inadvertence could have permitted a reference of the whole question in controversy to the arbitration of a foreign power, on a disagreement between the commissioners, resting upon so ridiculous a pretext, as that the northwest angle of Nova Scotia, the grand landmark named in the treaty as the starting point of the line of boundary, was to be found at Mars Hill. So also, what could have been a grosser inadvertence, than the proposition repeatedly made by Mr. Livingston, under the direction of General Jackson, but not acceded to at the time by the British Government, that if no highlands can be found in a direction due north from the source of the St. Croix, "which divide those waters that empty themselves into the St. Lawrence from those that fall into the Atlantic Ocean," in such case the due north line shall be discarded, and a line shall be drawn in any direction to highlands which may be found answering the description, in any part of the disputed territory, north or south of the St. John River? This concession, if it had any meaning, was an abandonment of one of the material conditions of the treaty, for the express purpose of giving some plausibility to the British claim, which without it, could hardly be pretended to exist?

It is foreign from our purpose to go into any history of the negotiations for settling this controversy. These negotiations, as intimated at the beginning of this article, are now in a train which affords a hope of a satisfactory adjustment. The more reliance is to be placed on the expectation of an amicable termination of the controversy at this time, from the fact that both parties must be convinced, that the whole value of the territory in dispute would not be an adequate indemnity to the parties for the hazard of leaving it undetermined a single year, and for the injury in that period, resulting from the unsettled state of the relations between the two governments.

M I S C E L L A N Y .

UNITED STATES EXPLORING EXPEDITION.

THE Vincennes corvette, the flag ship of the United States Exploring Squadron, which has been engaged for the last four years in the Pacific and Antarctic Oceans, arrived at New York on the 10th of June. The other vessels of the squadron are expected daily.

We have from time to time given accounts of the more prominent operations of this squadron, as they have reached us.* The results of its voyages and the labors of its officers are such as to reflect great honor on those who were engaged in it, and to answer the high expectations which have been formed of it. The expedition sailed on the 18th of August, 1838; the different vessels composing it have been unremittingly engaged in its duties during the intervening four years.

Several of the principal groups of islands in the Pacific Ocean have been visited, examined, and surveyed; a friendly intercourse and protective commercial regulations established with the chiefs and natives; aggressions on our citizens and commerce redressed, and a justly merited punishment meted out in some flagrant cases of unprovoked and cold-blooded murder. The positions assigned on the charts to several reefs, shoals, and islands, have been carefully looked for, run over, and found to have no existence in or near the places assigned to them.

Several islands not laid down in the charts have been discovered, on one of which the natives offered worship, evidently believing that their visitors had come from the sun.

The Sooloo Sea has also been examined, several islands found to have been erroneously laid down upon the charts, and others not to have been laid down at all. Protective commercial regulations have been established with the Sultan of Sooloo, and a correct chart made of a feasible and short route for passing through those seas for China, against the northeast monsoon.

The expedition, during its absence, has also examined and surveyed a large portion of the Oregon Territory, a part of Upper California, including the Columbia and Sacramento Rivers, with their various tributaries. Several exploring parties from the squadron have examined, and fixed the positions of those portions of the Oregon Territory which were least known. A map of the Territory, embracing its rivers, sounds, harbors, coasts, forts, &c., has been prepared, which will furnish the

* See Monthly Chronicle, Vol. I. pp. 210, 239, 267, Vol. II. pp. 31, 394, Vol. III. p. 91.

government with a mass of valuable information relative to its possessions on the Northwest Coast, and the whole of Oregon.

Experiments were made with the pendulum, on "Mouna Loa or Roa," on the Island of Hawaii, one of the Sandwich Islands, at a height of fourteen thousand feet above the level of the sea. Topographical surveys and views were made of some of its active and most extensive craters.

Experiments have been made with the pendulum, magnetic apparatus, and various other instruments, on all occasions where useful results could be obtained; the temperature of the ocean, at various depths, ascertained in the different seas traversed, and full meteorological and other observations kept during the cruise.

By far the most interesting discovery of the expedition, is the great Antarctic Continent, the northern coast of which it coasted for a distance of several hundred miles. We have before given the details of this interesting discovery, so far as they have reached our government, in the report of Captain Wilkes, [Mon. Chron. Vol. I. pp. 210, 287, Vol. II. p. 394,] illustrated by a chart of the Antarctic regions, on which the discoveries of the expedition, as well as those of Captain Ross, are delineated. It will be recollected, that Captain Ross's discovery, in a more southern latitude, of an eastern coast of what is probably the same continent, was made in the ensuing season. The chart in Vol. II. p. 392, shows the routes of both the English and the American, as well as that of the recent French expedition. There is not, as has been sometimes implied, the slightest contradiction in the narratives of the several commanders. To Captain Wilkes and his associates belongs whatever credit arises from making the earliest and most extensive discoveries. None of this Antarctic region has been landed upon, except a small island discovered by Captain Ross.

Charts of all the surveys of the squadron have been made, with views and sketches of headlands, towns or villages, &c., with descriptions of all that appertains to the localities, productions, language, customs, and manners. At some of the islands, this duty has been attended with much labor, exposure, and risk of life; the treacherous character of the natives rendering it absolutely necessary that the officers and men should be armed while on duty, and at all times prepared against their murderous attacks. On several occasions, boats have been absent from the different vessels of the squadron, on surveying duty, (the greater portion of which has been performed in boats,) among islands, reefs, &c., for a period of ten, twenty, and thirty days at one time; on one of these occasions, two of the officers were killed at the Fiji group, while defending their boats' crew from an attack by the natives.

The scientific gentlemen have been actively engaged in their various departments, and subject to all the exposures incident to researches among dangerous and hostile savages. Mr. Hale, the philologist of the expedition, was left at the Columbia River, for the purpose of prosecuting his labors among the different tribes of the Oregon territory. He arrived home before the rest of the expedition, having crossed the continent. In addition to the large collections already received from the expedition, the Vincennes has now on board a large and valuable collection, including

several boxes of live plants, bulbs, &c., collected in the Pacific, Sooloo, at the Phillipines, Singapore, Cape of Good Hope, and St. Helena.

Although the officers and crew of the Expedition have been exposed to every variety of climate, the general health of the squadron has been without a precedent. But one officer, (Mr. Vanderford, master's mate, who died on the passage home,) and only eight of the men, have died from disease.

Besides the great Antarctic Continent, the Expedition examined or surveyed the following ports, reefs, and islands:

Ports visited. — Madeira, Port Praya (Cape de Verde), Rio Janeiro (Brazil), Valparaiso (Chili), Callao (Peru), Sydney (New South Wales), New Zealand, Manilla (Laconia I.), Singapore, Cape of Good Hope, St. Helena.

Reefs, shoals, &c., looked for, and not found. — St. Ann's Shoal, Maria Rock, Bonio Felix Shoals, Bonetta Shoals, Hartwell Reef, Patty's Overfalls, Warley Shoals, French Shoal in two positions, Triton Bank, Vigia, Bowvett's Sandy Isles, Submarine Volcano at Kraisenstene.

ISLANDS SURVEYED, WITH THE HARBORS.

Low Archipelago. — Clermont Tonnerre Island; Serle's Island; Minerva; Hondens; Wyhite; Otookoo; Kings; Raraka; Vincennes; Carlshoff; Waterland; Wilson and Peacock; Rurick's Chain; Prince of Wales; Krusenstern's.

Society Islands. — Maitea; Otaheite and harbors; Eimeo; Bellinghausen; Rosa.

Navigator Group. — Manucah; Lutuella; Upolu; Monoko; Aposimo; Savaii; Wallis's Island; Horn; Lord North's; Macquarie's; Eooa; Tongataboo; Harpai; Turtle.

Fiji Group. — Fifteen Islands and fifty Reefs, viz.: Tulanga Island; Angea; Nambus Angea Bank; Angasa Island; Namulka; Morambo; Engrasso; Cambia; Komo; Mothe; Karoni; Oloma; Oneata; Avia; Lakemba; Bacon's, 2; Reed's, 3; Nean; Tubuttet; Yeaki; Hatafouga; Vanderford; Verna Ballan; Susui; Manea; Sicombia; Olohu; Muago; Hanathea; Molucio; Ohembon; Nartomba; Zelangula; Chielia; Vatala; Namko; Oneholafango; Onuminsio; Houlelavon; Oretena; Lavatala; Kenobid; Iac; Lomo Somo; Budd; North; Maury; Holmes, De Haven; Oranibi; Okid; Lortoai; Maola; Nanai; Angasa; Gora; Batika; Vanul Levu; Morna Orna; Malee; Vakai; Maona, 2 Islands; Direction, 4 Islands; Horse Shoe Reef; Ovalaw Island; Moro; Neniau; Passage; Ono; Kantavu.

Passed Midshipman's Group of Islands, ten in number. — G. Endua; Botuman; Mallana; Benga; Nuanoka; Vita Levu; Flying Fish Reef.

Midshipman's Group of Islands, four in number. — Maton Island; Malolo.

Waldron Island; Speedin; Palmer; Peny; Alden; Case; Johnson; Carr; Walker's; Emmons.

Knox Island; Davis Island; Baldin's Island; Totten's Island.

Vouno Island; Vier Valan; Waid Lalai; Ward; Bivi; Agate; Sin-

clair; Fox Island; Eld; Naviti; Nagetta; Matatha Valle; Otoason; Nanoga; Nadora; Orana; Ya Asalana; Ya Asana; Ya Roin; Nimbora; Naola; Vendola; Tavia; Muthauata; Kinsuna; Round; Angrajas; Gera; Chicobia; Nugulou; Corabia; Maselou; Annan; Beoia, 2 Islands; Gardner's Island; McKean's; Hull's; Sydney; Taber; Washington, or New York Island; Jarvis's; Enderby's Bennie; Duke of York; Duke of Clarence; Bowditch; Swain's; Ellen's Islands, or Group; Endua Islands; Tracy's Island seen; Depeyster's Island discovered.

Kingsmill Group. — Drummond's Island; Bishop, or Sydenham's; Woodlee's; Hendervill's; Hull's; Simpson's; Knox; Charlotte; Mathews; Pitt's Island, 2; Mulgrave; Arrowsmith's; Daniels; Peddar's Pescadores; Karsakoff, 2 islands.

Sandwich Islands. — Oahu; Kauai; Hawaii; Maui.

Ladrones. — Wakes; Guam; Assumption.

Sooloo Islands and Sea; Mangsee; Straits of Balback, Balanquay, Rhio, Banca, Sunda, Casper; Bourbon's Island; Hunter's; Barney; Favorles; Luis; M'Kennie's; Straits of Barandena; Vasquez Island; Pylstaarts; Sunday.

Rio Negro; Cape Horn; Orange Harbor, &c.

Columbia River, (surveyed to the cascades and falls, 120 miles.) Straits of Juan de Fuca; Puget Sound; Nasquolly; New Dungenness; Classett Harbor, and all the harbors in that vicinity. These surveys were made while the expedition was engaged on the western shore of the Oregon Territory. It also examined the harbor of San Francisco and the River Sacramento, in Mexico.

RECOLLECTIONS OF PEKIN.

BY A RUSSIAN TRAVELLER.

IN the first few days of our residence at Pekin, we experienced so much inconvenience from our European clothing, that we made all possible haste to exchange it for the costume of the Chinese. Fortunately for us, no one here need trouble himself with the care of what he shall put on, and wherewithal he shall be clothed, a thing that disturbs so many a head in the more intellectual capitals of Europe, for the truly paternal or *maternal* government of China releases its subjects even from this anxiety. The wonderfully complex Chinese wardrobe, with all its divisions and subdivisions, is subjected to certain rigid and invariable laws, and not to the ever-changeful caprices of fashion. The vicissitudes of the seasons determine the regular periodical changes of dress, and they are observed with the same punctual obedience, as the dictates of the fickle deity by the fair "*liones*" of Paris or London. There is no room either for the feeling of irreverent mirth, with which we are some-

times disposed to regard the cut of our grandfather's coat, for grandfather, father, and son, are all habited in garments of the same fashion, and an Imperial proclamation announces to the lieges of the Celestial Empire when the time has arrived for exchanging the costume of spring for that of summer, and that again for what befits the autumn. One point, however, has been left unguarded. Like Achilles, they are vulnerable in the heel, and the fashion of shoes is continually varying.

We no sooner found ourselves equipped in full Chinese costume, as by law established, than we sallied forth in a small hired chaise, to gratify our curiosity with a sight of Pekin. We drove past the palace of the Emperor, who, however, only passes the winter here, but the spring, summer, and autumn at a country residence twelve miles off the capital. The town palace occupies an immense space, and consists of a vast assemblage of houses of one story high, covered with tiles. Each of these is separate, and has its particular destination. In one, the Emperor lives; in another, transacts business; a third is the residence of the Empress; a fourth of the widow of the deceased Emperor; a fifth contains the concubines of the reigning sovereign, a sixth those of the departed one; others are inhabited by their children, eunuchs, and attendants in countless swarms. Each house is surrounded with a high wall, within which none may enter without permission. These are again inclosed in one general wall, the gates of which open only to the courtiers, and the outer inclosure alone is free to be entered by the public. The shining yellow tiles covering the roof of the palace were all we were destined to behold of it; and turning away after this scanty gratification, we drove through a street which, like all the principal ones, was distinguished for breadth and regularity, but none are paved. In the middle of every main street, the earth is thrown up to the height of about three feet, for foot passengers and light carriages; those heavily laden, and drawn by from five to seven mules, must pass along the narrow paths at the side next the houses; but when, after heavy rain, these become filled with impassable mud, even heavy vehicles are allowed the advantage of the raised road, which, being broad, would be convenient enough, were it not hemmed in by tents and booths, encroaching so much on the pathway as scarcely to leave room for two carriages to drive abreast. When the Celestial Majesty goes out to take a drive, which happens several times during the year, these booths are all cleared away, and the road smoothed and covered with yellow sand, that the inconveniences of the streets of the capital may not be experienced by its ruler.

The immense population of Pekin occasions the streets to be filled the whole day with an uninterrupted succession of vehicles, proceeding in two lines in opposite directions, and it sometimes happens that the whole procession is brought to a stand-still by nothing more than a question of politeness. If a Chinese, when driving, meets an acquaintance on foot, he must necessarily dismount from his carriage, let the weather or the dirt be what it may, inquire after his friend's health, and invite him to enter the equipage. The pedestrian is, of course, equally bound to reciprocate the inquiries, and to entreat the first to pursue his way. The

owner of the carriage, however, will not get into it till the walker has passed on, and he, on his part, cannot think of passing on till the other has got in. This ceremony will sometimes occupy half an hour, and if the *rencontre* should happen to be of dignified official personages, the Chinese await its conclusion with marvellous patience. Now and then, however, the case is different. On this our first drive it happened that a ragged, dirty fellow, in a kind of greasy smock frock, who was driving a sorry looking machine, drawn by a lean mule, detained us all a quarter of an hour with his grimaces on meeting an acquaintance, but this was too much for his long-suffering countrymen, and they bawled to him to cut short his politeness and drive on.

Although the principal streets are, as I have said, sufficiently wide, the by-streets are so narrow, that two carriages cannot pass in them, and a driver is obliged on entering them to call out, that no one may enter at the same time at the opposite end. Formerly, at every point of intersection between these streets, there stood a gate, closed at night, but though many of these gates are still standing, the custom has been discontinued.

The houses of the Chinese have a monotonous appearance, being mostly surrounded with high walls of gray, half-baked brick, above which nothing but their peaked roofs are to be seen. The only exception to this uniform gray color is offered by the imperial palace, which is covered with smooth yellow tiles. Besides this, seven or eight princely abodes offer some variety of color, but the unvarying dusty hue of the rest would become insupportably wearisome, were it not for the relief afforded by the projecting shops. Before the entrance of each of these hangs a varnished black board covered with gold letters, but there is little decoration in any other than the sweetmeat shops. The whole fronts of these are almost always covered with gilding, enriched with sprawling dragons and other figures, and their splendor is rendered still more striking from the contrast presented not unfrequently by the ruinous hovel and broken-down wall adjoining.

Gardens or walks for public resort do not exist in Peking, and among the buildings the only ones worthy of notice are the temples, which are profusely painted with vermilion.

Among the sins of the Chinese, certainly cannot be counted that of an excess of ceremonial devotion, for these temples are almost always empty. A newly-appointed official sometimes seems to consider it a duty, when the place obtained is a lucrative one, to visit all the temples in the city, and he then goes to work in the following manner. He carries into the temple a bundle of tapers, made of the bark of trees and sweet-scented oil, and kindles them before the idols, whilst the priest strikes with a stick on a metal plate. The worshipper then makes a few prostrations, throws down some money, and the business is settled. The common people never enter the temples but on particular occasions, such, for instance, as in time of great drought, when they go thither in troops to pray for rain. Of any other prayer than a supplication for immediate temporal benefit they do not seem to have any idea.

During certain days in every year, indeed, the temples are much fre-

quented, but for the purposes of trade, not of devotion. The courts are then filled with traders, who display their goods, principally of the ornamental kind, and the visitors stroll about, or make purchases, as at a fair. Enormous prices are demanded on these occasions. For a stone of a grass-green color, much valued by the Chinese for rings, bracelets, &c., a merchant asked me 250 *lan*, (upwards of £100,) and took 26. The scene is further enlivened by the exhibitions of conjurors throwing knives, tumblers walking on their hands, and other similar diversions, but by the evening the temple is again left silent and desolate. The priest alone had the ceremony to perform of burning three times in the day a small taper before the idols, prostrating himself at the same time. Should this duty become too onerous, he sends one of his scholars to do it for him, and if the scholar should not happen to be in the way, perhaps a common day-laborer. As long as the tapers are lighted at the proper time, and the due portion of the prostrations performed, all is right. It must be a very unreasonable idol that would require more.

If the houses of religious worship usually stand empty, the houses of public entertainment, on the other hand, are almost always full. The prices charged at these places are enormously high, and among the young men of the wealthy classes, it is by no means uncommon for a supper party of three or four to spend 50 *lan* (£23 10s.) The dainties consumed on these occasions are of a very *recherché* description, and principally recommended by the difficulty of procuring them. A favorite dish, for instance, is roasted ice, which is enormously dear, as very few cooks possess the skill and dexterity required for its preparation. A lump of ice is taken upon a sieve, and after being quickly enveloped in a sort of paste made of sugar, eggs, and spices, is plunged into a pan full of boiling pork fat or lard. The grand point is then to serve it up before the ice has time to melt. What may be the peculiar attraction of this dainty dish it would be hard to say, for though frozen inside it burns the mouth when first tasted. A small plateful costs six *lan* (about 36s.) The Chinese viands in general are disagreeable to an European, as they do not use salt in their cookery, and do use an immoderate quantity of pork fat, besides ginger and garlic. The roast meats, however, it must be admitted, form an honorable exception, and would be acceptable even at the table of a Parisian *gastrophile*. The immense number of taverns (or *traiteurs*) in Pekin find no want of support, as it is the custom to entertain guests there, and not at private houses, to which relationship or very particular intimacy alone can give a claim to be invited. A banquet at one of these houses is considered to be a necessary conclusion to the pleasure of a theatrical entertainment, which is generally over by six in the evening, beginning at eleven in the forenoon. At these dinners, or suppers, the handsome boys who play the female parts are frequent guests, and they are allowed to select the dishes. Their choice, as may be supposed, is seldom guided by economy, and indeed it occasionally happens that they have an understanding with the master of the house. These boys are generally elegantly dressed, polished in their manners, and fluent and even witty in their conversation.

The Chinese women are to be seen neither in the temples, nor the theatres, nor the taverns, but only in the streets. None but the lowest class ever walk on foot, others drive in carriages, and ladies of the highest rank are borne in litters. They go without veils, with their heads uncovered, and decorated with beautiful artificial flowers. Indeed, this custom of sticking flowers in the hair is so prevalent, that I have known a dirty old cook, running out to buy a little garlic or a cabbage, stop to adorn her gray locks with a flower. The dress of the Chinese women consists of red or green trousers, embroidered with colored silks, and a jacket and upper garment likewise embroidered. Narrow shoulders and a flat bosom being regarded as handsome, they bind a broad girdle tight over the breast, by way of improving their figures.

Going out to take a drive is an affair of great ceremony with a Chinese lady, as she must have one horseman to ride before her carriage, one to ride after, a coachman to drive, and two men on each side to hold up the vehicle lest it should tip over. The entrance is at the front, and the mule which draws it is not harnessed till the lady and her attendant have entered, which is managed by bringing the carriage into the house and resting the poles upon the stairs. When a gentleman goes out, he displays his magnificence by the number of his attendants, which often exceeds twenty. Not more than one or two of these fellows are decently dressed, but, however ragged or dirty, pride demands that a numerous troop of these lazy vagabonds should be maintained.

The movement in the streets of Pekin begins with break of day, that is, in summer at four o'clock, and in winter at six, and the noise and bustle increases till seven, when it is at its height. By nine or ten o'clock the whole city is asleep, the most profound stillness reigns in the desolate streets, and only here and there is seen the faint light of a paper lantern fastened against a post.

Quarrels in the streets of Pekin seldom occur, as the Chinese are the arrantest cowards in the world, and rarely think of fighting if there is a possibility of running away. They can, however, become formidable when rendered desperate, but seldom have recourse on common occasions to any other weapon but the tongue. Once, indeed, during the early part of my stay at Pekin, I witnessed an affray, in which two Chinese, armed with thick sticks, attacked with indescribable rage a third, who had offended them, and though, having received some severe blows on the head, the poor devil fell senseless to the ground, they continued to work away at him, without being prevented by the bystanders. By-and-by the police appeared, but deterred, apparently, by the flashing eyes and stout cudgels of the belligerents from interfering in their diversion, waited till they had belabored their victim to their hearts' content, and then carried them off, unresisting, to the magistrate. — *Allgemeine Zeitung*.

BIRTHS, DEATHS, AND MARRIAGES IN ENGLAND.

WE have published heretofore, [Mon. Chron. Vol. I. p. 365,] an abstract of the report of the Registrar-General, of the births, deaths, and marriages in England, embracing those of the year ending June 30, 1839. We now give an abstract of his third report, embracing a similar statement for the year ending June 30, 1840, with some comparative statements respecting the three successive years. Some extracts from the appendix to this last report, containing interesting remarks upon the causes of death, and the comparative number of violent deaths at different periods, were given in a late Number of this volume, [p. 83,] but the report itself had not then reached us. The table formed from the signatures to the parish registers, by the persons married, is a curious document, as affording a scale for measuring the state of education in the different parts of the kingdom. The remarkable coincidence between the results thus obtained from the different districts in the two successive years, affords a conclusive proof of the accuracy of the scale for testing the facts in question. The report, of which this is an abstract, was made by T. H. Lister, the Registrar-General, and published by order of Parliament.

The following statement will show the numbers registered in the year ending June 30, 1840, compared with those of the preceding years :

	1839, '40.	1838, '39.	1837, '38.
Births,	501,569	480,540	399,712
Deaths,	350,101	331,007	335,956
Marriages,	124,329	121,063	111,481

There is thus an increase in the number of births registered in the year ending June 30, 1840, over those in 1838, '9, of 21,049; over those in 1837, '8, of 101,877.

In the number of deaths registered in the year ending June 30, 1840, over those in 1838, '9, of 19,094; over those in 1837, '8, of 14,145.

In the number of marriages registered in the year ending June 30, 1840, over those in 1838, '9, of 3,246; over those in 1837, '8, of 12,848.

The increase in the number of registered births results from a continuance of that successful operation of the new law, to which I have already adverted in my first and second reports, and which began to appear after the former half of the first year of registration; and I can truly state, as before, that I attribute this success mainly to the diffusion of a true knowledge of the beneficial tendencies of the measure, and to the diligence and intelligence of the local officers by whom it is carried into execution.

In each of the last three years the proportion of male and female births has been very nearly the same.

The increase of deaths compared with those of the two preceding years is less than it appears to be. It must be remembered that the first year's registration could not comprise the deaths of the whole year, which, including those registered subsequently, amounted to 338,660. The real

increase, therefore, over the registered deaths which occurred in the year 1837, '8, is 11,441. It must also be borne in mind, that the population of England and Wales was shown by the censuses of 1821 and 1831 to have increased from 1821 to 1831 at the rate of 16 per cent.; and if it be assumed, (as is probable,) that this rate of increase has continued to the present time, the population in the years 1838, '9, and 1839, '40, will probably have increased to the amount of from 220,000 to 240,000 yearly. If the lowest of these numbers be taken, and the mortality be estimated at the lowest rate consistent with probability, namely, 1 in 50, there will in each of these years, at the same rate of mortality, have been at least 4,400 more deaths than in the year preceding. This number, therefore, (being the probable increase, at the same rate of mortality,) must be deducted; and the remaining numbers, which indicate increased mortality, will, for the year 1839, '40, as compared with 1837, '8, be about 7,000; compared with 1838, '9 about 14,700. Yet this increase is great; and inasmuch as there is reason to believe, that it is not merely an apparent increase, arising, like that of births, from the improved efficiency of a registration which, at the commencement, was very defective, (for the very efficient registration of deaths, even in the first year, left no such room for improvement,) but that there has really been an increased mortality to that amount, a circumstance so serious demands attention and inquiry, with a view to ascertain the nature of the increase, and especially whether it has been sudden or progressive, general or local, and whether affecting equally or unequally all ages and both sexes.

The proportion of male to female deaths in each of the three years has been nearly the same, as appears from the following numbers;

	Males.	Females.
Year ending June 30, 1838,	170,965	164,991
" " " " 1839,	169,112	161,695
" " " " 1840,	177,929	172,172

On examination of the ages at which deaths have occurred in the foregoing years, it appears that the increase has been principally in the deaths of children, as is shown by the following table:

YEARS.	AGE.			
	Under 5 years.	5 to 60.	60 and up- wards.	All ages, inc. those spec'd.
1837 '38	131,034	128,921	75,127	335,956
1838 '39	130,695	126,594	72,860	331,007
1839 '40	141,747	131,730	75,973	350,101
Excess of deaths, in 1839 '40 over 1837 '38,	10,713	2,809	846	14,145
Over 1838 '39,	11,052	5,136	3,113	19,094

Thus more than half of the excess over the deaths of 1838 '9, and more than three fourths of the excess over those of 1837 '8, consisted of the deaths of children under five years of age.

That this increased mortality has not been general, but has been con-

fined to certain localities; while, at the same time, there has been a decreased mortality in other parts of the kingdom, appears from a given table.

The counties in which there has been the greatest increase of mortality, compared with that of 1838 and 1839, are Lancashire, Nottinghamshire, West Riding of Yorkshire, Leicestershire, Cheshire, Gloucestershire, Northumberland, Durham, Derbyshire, and North Wales, the combined increase of which alone amounts to 15,231, out of the total increase of 19,097.

The prevalence of such increased mortality in those counties, which comprise the largest proportion of manufacturing population, naturally suggests that the cause may probably be found in circumstances to which the manufacturing classes have been peculiarly exposed. But a further examination shows, that not only has the increase varied very much within those counties, but that there has even been a decreased mortality in some of those districts which are peculiarly the seats of manufacture. Such has been the case in Manchester and Salford, Ashton, Oldham, Stockport, and Leeds. Therefore, though manufacturing distress cannot be excluded from among the possible causes of increased mortality, care must be taken not to assign such mortality to this one cause in an undue degree.

It appears from the evidence of the entries in the register-books, and the reports of superintendent registrars, that this increased mortality is attributable chiefly to the prevalence of epidemics, especially of typhus and scarlet fever, and that the districts of Chorley, Leigh, Wigan, Burnley, and Blackburn, in Lancashire; Macclesfield, Dewsbury, Pontefract, Nottingham, Bingham, Ashby-de-la-Zouch, Bangor, and Beaumaris, are those in which these diseases have been fatal to the greatest extent.

The great increase in the number of marriages, an increase amounting to 12,848, over those registered in the year 1837 '8, compared with the much smaller increase, amounting only to 3,246, over those of the year 1838 '9, confirms the statement made in my second report, that the number in 1837 '8 must not be considered as an average number, but that there was a deficiency in that year, attributable to the change in the law; many marriages, as I was informed, having, under a misapprehension of the object and effect of the Act for Marriages, been solemnized immediately before that act came into operation. Of the increase, amounting to 3,246, over the registered marriages of the year 1838, '9, more than half may be regarded as the natural result of increased population. It is calculated that the population of England and Wales, at the middle of the latter of the above-mentioned years of registration, namely, Jan. 1, 1839, exceeded by not less than 225,000 the population on Jan. 1, 1838; and as the ordinary proportion of marriages to population is nearly 8 annually to every 1,000 persons, more than 1,700 marriages may be ascribed to the increase of the population; and the excess, independent of such increase, will thus be reduced to little more than 1,500.

In the abstract of marriages I have included the numbers of each sex married under 21 years of age, which were 6,100 men and 17,909 women, being in proportion to the whole number married 4.90 per cent. and

14.40 per cent. respectively. This proportion is in a slight degree higher than in the preceding year, when the numbers were 5,628 men and 16,414 women, and the proportions 4.64 and 13.55.

The results exhibited by this table correspond very closely with those stated in my report of the preceding year. I then mentioned, as the counties in which early marriages appeared to prevail, Hertford, Bedford, Cambridge, Huntingdon, Northampton, Leicester, and Essex. The same, with the addition of Wiltshire, are the eight counties in which, in the succeeding year, are the largest proportion of men married under the age of 21. The results are also similar in these two years respecting those portions of the kingdom in which early marriages have been most rare.

I have in my second report endeavored to throw light upon the state of education, with respect to writing, among the adult population of England and Wales, by showing the proportion per cent. in the metropolis, in each English county, and in North and South Wales, of persons married in the year ending June 30th, 1840, who, instead of writing their names in the marriage register, have signed with marks.

It appears from a table given, that in thirteen English counties, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, and in Wales, more than 40 per cent. of the men married did not write their names; and that in nineteen English counties, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, and in Wales, the same fact existed with respect to more than half the women; and it appears from an abstract of marriages, that in the whole of England and Wales, out of 124,329 couples, there were 41,812 men and 62,523 women, who, it is to be presumed, either could not write, or wrote very imperfectly.

If the table for the year ending June 30, 1840, had shown results differing widely from those of the preceding year, it might reasonably have been suspected, that such returns were not likely to have become valuable and safe criterions of the comparative state of education, that they are drawn from too small a portion of the whole population, and are too much influenced by accident. Such, however, is not the case. A comparison of such table with a similar table in my second report, (it is stated,) will show a remarkably close correspondence in the results, not only for the whole kingdom, but in the metropolis, and every considerable group of counties. This will be evident from the following comparison of the mean proportion for the respective years:

	Mean proportion.	
	1839.	1840.
Metropolis,	18	18
Southeastern counties,	36	36
South Midland counties,	48	49
Eastern counties,	48	51
Southwestern counties,	39	38
Western counties,	47	46
North Midland counties,	41	42
Northwestern counties,	51	52
Yorkshire,	45	47
Northern counties,	31	32
Monmouthshire and Wales,	59	59
England and Wales,	41.59	41.92

It appears, that, tried by the returns of these two years, every county occupies nearly the same relative position, and many of them precisely the same. The coincidence sufficiently proves that the test is one which must not be disregarded, but may be found a valuable and safe criterion of the comparative state of education. But I must add, that it is only from a comparison much more extensive than that of the returns of two years, that the superiority or inferiority of particular portions of the kingdom can with fairness be inferred; and that I do not yet attempt to found any opinion of that kind upon such evidence only as is comprised in the foregoing statements.

NEW COMPOSITION FOR CAULKING SHIPS.

MR. JEFFREY, the inventor of a new composition for caulking and strengthening ships, of which experiments have been made on the Thames, having made known his invention to the Ordnance Department, experiments for testing its properties were made under their directions. On the 5th of May an appointment was made by Lieutenant-General Lord Bloomfield, with a large number of the officers of the Royal Artillery, to meet Mr. Jeffrey at the Observatory, near the Royal Military Repository at Woolwich, for the purpose of obtaining further information respecting the invention, and of the nature of the material used. A large number of distinguished officers assembled in the large room to hear the explanations relative to this important discovery. Mr. Jeffrey commenced his details by exhibiting pieces of copper covered with the composition, to show that it was equally applicable to the preservation of metals from the effects of salt water as it was to wood, preventing, when mixed with certain materials, the adhesion of barnacles or other shell-fish, so injurious to wood or to copper when not properly prepared, or which may, from some unexplained cause, have lost its power of protection from the attacks of marine insects and shell-fish. A block was next exhibited, fixed together, composed of three pieces, having on one side of the centre-piece about three-quarters of an inch of the composition, and on the other side a similar thickness of the substance at present generally used for vessels in the naval and mercantile service. This block had been submitted to a pressure of twenty-two tons, to show the effect that would be produced in very cold climates. The new composition under that pressure retained its softness, but the present caulking materials became as brittle as rosin, and could be broken into powder by the slightest strain or sharp blow upon it, which would have no effect upon the new composition. Two pieces of teak wood, which had before been joined together and tested with a strain of twenty-one tons by the hydraulic machine in the dockyard, were then exhibited, and it was astonishing to witness the strong and sound iron bolts of 1 1-2 inch in diameter, which had broken without the least symptom of the material with which the pieces were joined yielding to the great power

applied with the object of tearing them asunder. Another block, formed of three pieces joined together, so as to present angles which would be sure to give great force against the joinings in whatever position it might fall to the ground, was exhibited to show that it had received no injury, although it had been thrown from the top of the shears in the dockyard, seventy-six feet high, on the hard granite below. During the time Mr. Jeffrey was making these explanations, in order to show the quickness with which the new composition could be made available, he joined two pieces of wood with it, and another piece he broke and fixed again in its rough state, and in about fifteen minutes he submitted them for the purpose of being broken, which could only be effected by breaking with a hammer the solid wood on each side. Mr. Jeffrey concluded his details by expressing the obligations he felt under to the Lords of the Admiralty, to Captain Sir Francis Collier, Kt., C. B., and K. C. H., and Mr. Oliver Lang, Master Shipwright of Woolwich Dockyard, and the other master shipwrights forming the committee, without whose assistance he would not have been able to carry out his invention to the satisfactory extent he had done. Lord Bloomfield, on the part of himself and the officers of the Royal Artillery, who were all highly gratified with what they had witnessed, returned thanks to Mr. Jeffrey for the clear manner in which he had explained his invention, which appeared to be very valuable.

LACE WEAVING MACHINES.

A LATE Nottingham (English) Journal, gives the following interesting details of an important revolution which is about to be made in a branch of manufacture which employs a large number of persons in that vicinity : "A very serious and important change is now gradually commencing in the bobbin net trade. Hitherto the fancy lace trade branch, with but few exceptions, has been confined to the productions made from the traverse warp and the Levers' principle of machine ; the pushers being in general confined to Grecian, and bullet-hole nets, the latter of which scarcely ever got footing in the market. The introduction of straight-down nets, by Harvey and Bryant, from their little five-point machine, has effected wonders, and it is not too much to say, that it has realized to this district nearly three millions sterling, which in all probability would never have come in, as hand machines without that important discovery were completely beat out of the market, and must have wholly succumbed to power produced nets. After essaying unsuccessfully nearly nine years, with but slight exceptions, to produce fancy nets of good patterns, the circular bolt and comb machines have at length succeeded, and we have seen patterns produced from that principle of machine, both in warp-ground and linen-work, which equal the productions from the Levers' machine. This subject is of immense importance to the "town and trade of Nottingham," as the greater part of the machines at work in the town and suburbs are con-

structed upon the Levers' principle, which are principally propelled by hand, though in many instances moved by a rotatory apparatus. The circular machine is especially constructed to make traverse nets with facility, that is, where the bobbin threads cross each other diagonally in traversing transversely from selva to selva. Nets constructed upon this method will bear the ordeal of that great searcher of lace, the wash-tub, whereas nets untraversed, unless a considerable quantity of twist is inserted to tie the meshes, will not stand the test of the laundress. Hitherto every attempt to traverse the carriages in Levers' machines by rotatory apparatus, has been to a great extent unsuccessful; though several patents are now in force for traversing Levers' machines by rotatory apparatus, which methods have been several times described in our columns. The greater part of the Nottingham-made fancy nets are untraversed, the pusher-bars being wholly taken away from most of the machines, the fancy net being made by an extra quantity of guide-bars interwrapping, in various devices, the straight-down bobbin threads. At length the circular machines have overcome many impediments, and have succeeded in applying additional guide-bars wherewith to work in devices, and varied texture in the net, which has the advantage of being traversed. The most important part of this matter is now to come; hitherto the hand Levers' machines have had nearly a monopoly of this lucrative trade, which has been one of the main supports of this district. Now the power machines will come into competition, which are principally situated at Chard, Tiverton, Taunton, Barnstaple, Derby, and Chesterfield. It is true, there are power factories in Broad Marsh, Woolpack Lane, and Hockley, in this town, and at Carrington, Basford, Radford, and Lenton, in our immediate vicinity; but then they do not amount in the whole to much more than a third of the machines which are at work in the counties of Somerset, Devon, and Derby; as for Leicestershire, however extensive the bobbin net trade was in the year 1829, it has now become nearly extinct in that county. This subject, however unpleasant, we feel it our duty to revert to, and to put the machine owners upon the alert to meet the coming emergency."

BLAXLAND'S SUBMARINE PROPELLER.

Among the many inventions, the object of which has been to substitute for the old and avowedly disadvantageous system of paddle-wheels, some mechanical power which should act upon the stern of the vessel, and below the surface of the water, none has been hitherto formed more efficient in its working, or more completely overcoming the difficulties attending the problem, than that of Mr. Blaxland. The propeller itself is extremely simple in form, consisting of a variable number of arms radiating from the centre, the extremity of each arm being provided with a number of flat blades in close succession, and each being placed trans-

versely to and forming a slight angle¹ with that immediately below it. The whole surface presented by each set of blades meets the water at the greatest depth in an angular position, and in rising or descending allows the water to pass through the small openings between the plates. One of the most important and remarkable points of the invention is the method of conveying the motion to the shaft of the propeller. This is effected through the medium of drums and pulleys connected by straps or ropes, the working of which is perfectly smooth and noiseless,—a great advantage compared with the system of spur wheels and pinions previously employed, the noise and tremulous motion from which is represented as intolerable. In bringing his invention before the public, Mr. Blaxland has followed a course, which, by establishing a direct comparison with the old system, settles the question of superiority in the most unanswerable way. His first application of the propeller was to the *Jane*, a paddle-wheel steamboat of three tons, with an engine of three-quarter horse power. Retaining the same engine, he moved this vessel at a speed of 7 1-2 miles per hour, obtaining an increase of 2 1-2 on its previous velocity. The propeller has been now applied in the same way to another steamboat, the *Swiftsure*, from which the paddle-wheels have been removed, while the engines, of 20-horse power each, are retained, and on Saturday last, at 12 o'clock, five of the Lords of the Admiralty, namely, Lord Haddington, Sir G. Cockburn, Sir W. H. Gage, Sir G. F. Seymour, and the Right Hon. Sir H. T. L. Corry, together with the Hon. S. Herbert, the Secretary, were received on board by Mr. Blaxland and Mr. Steinman, co-proprietor with the inventor of the patent. The vessel then proceeded down the river to within a short distance of Deptford Dockyard, and returned to Whitehall Stairs by a quarter-past 2 o'clock. During the whole trip their Lordships paid the closest attention to the working of the system, and informed themselves minutely on every particular. The apparatus, by which the proper degree of speed is communicated to the propeller, which, in this instance, was moved by ropes laid in grooves over the drums, appeared in particular to raise their admiration at the smoothness and quietness with which it worked, and on leaving the vessel their Lordships expressed themselves very much pleased with all they had seen. Mr. Blaxland was ordered to bring the propeller to the Admiralty in the course of the week. That which was used on the occasion was constructed with only two arms, the plates at each extremity being five in number. Notwithstanding the disadvantages presented by the build of the *Swiftsure*, which renders her name somewhat ironical, Mr. Blaxland has succeeded in increasing her speed from 7 1-3 miles to 9 per hour. An increase of speed such as this, which Mr. Blaxland in every instance promises, together with the other advantages of getting rid of such incumbrances, both in weight and bulk, as paddle-wheels and boxes, and the absence of all swell from the motion of the propeller, render it almost beyond a doubt that Mr. Blaxland will shortly see his invention generally adopted. It was expected that the *Jane* would also have been in attendance last Saturday, but this was prevented in consequence of her having been sent to Endfield, where the capabilities of the invention for canal navigation were to be tested. — *London Times of May 30.*

VOLTAICO-ELECTRICAL EXPERIMENTS IN WATER.

WE extract the following account of some curious and novel electrical experiments from a late London paper :

It had, heretofore, been imagined, that aqueform fluids, such as water, and the denser solid earth, had neither of them the capability of acting as conductors of electricity, and reconducting it to the battery after its passage. Dr. Franklin, having tried the former, sought to convey the electric matter down two rivers in America, and to regain the voltaic fluid at the point where the battery was erected, but after sedulous experiments, found it ineffectual. This, however, the two experiments of Thursday completely determined to be practicable, and Messrs. Wright and Bain, of the Polytechnic Institution, who are the operators and discoverers, having obtained permission of the Duke of Sussex to experiment on the broad sheet of the Serpentine River, they, at three o'clock, on Friday, June 3, demonstrated the truth of their experiments to a number of scientific gentlemen, among whom was Mr. Herapath, and others. The method of operation was thus : Near the house of the Humane Society, on the right hand of the river, was stationed a small voltaic battery, to which one end of two copper wires were affixed by the hands of the experimentalist, the remaining portion of the wires being conveyed, the one to the left, and the end just immersed in the water, and the other in like manner carried along the right path of the river up to the bridge which divides the park from Kensington Gardens ; the end of this latter wire was then permitted to drop into the water over the bridge, on the top of which, part of it was attached to a coil of wire and needle. The purport of the experiment was to show, that after the wire had been charged with the voltaic electricity, the fluid passed out from the ends of the wires and travelled through the whole intervening length of the Serpentine-water, a space of nearly a mile in length, returning to the battery it had set out from, and thereby completing a concentric circuit of about two miles and a half. The needle above mentioned, situated on the bridge as a test, abundantly proved by its deflections, the genuineness of the experiment ; and signal-flags stationed at that point, and communicating with another in a boat down at the other end of the river, demonstrated by their motions the velocity with which the aqueously-conducted electricity travelled. A second experiment, made upon parallel wires extended across the Serpentine, was equally felicitous in its proofs and results.

NEW LITHOGRAPHIC PROCESS.

AN account of the new application of Daguerre's discovery by Signor Rondoni is given in several foreign journals as an extract from a statement which has been published in the Memoirs of the Astronomer of the

Roman College. What the writer of the account states is to the following effect: "A drawing of the nebula of Orion had just been finished, when our lithographer, Signor Rondoni, called and communicated his important discovery. He informed us that he had been successful in his efforts to produce on stone the effect at first produced by Daguerre on metallic plates. He is in possession of a composition which enables him to place on stone photographic images; and he is able to print therefrom, by the ordinary methods of lithography, as many copies as can be obtained from a drawing by the hand on stone. In proof of this, he proceeded to put his process to the test on the nebula of Orion, and the experiment was quite successful." The first proofs were sent to M. Arago, who speaks in high terms of the process of M. Rondoni, and has presented the proofs to the Academy of Sciences at Paris. It thus appears that an important discovery has been made; but it is not distinctly stated that the figure of the nebula is transmitted directly to the stone. That it is so transmitted is the first impression produced on reading the account; but there are a few Italian words under the plate given of the first proof, from which it may be presumed that the Daguerreotype figure on the stone must be transmitted, not from the object itself, but from a drawing made in the usual way by the hand.

A NEW EDITION OF THE NEW TESTAMENT.

THE following announcement has appeared at Rome, under date of March 14: "Cardinal Angelo Mai has just completed a work, on which he has been occupied for upwards of ten years. It is an edition of the New Testament, with the variations of all the manuscripts existing in the principal libraries of Rome, and other parts of Italy, and with numerous notes, full of philological research. The text adopted by Cardinal Mai, as the basis of his edition, is that of the celebrated manuscript, No. 1209, in the library of the Vatican, which dates from the sixth century. At the suggestion of his Eminence, the Papal Government has resolved to publish, at its own expense, a fac-simile of this manuscript, which is in gilt uncial letters, and in close writing, (*scriptis continuis*,) that is to say, the words are not separated from each other by spaces. Our celebrated engraver, Ruspi, is to execute a copperplate engraving of this fac-simile, copies of which will be presented by the Holy See to all the Sovereigns in Christendom."

MONUMENT TO WALTER SCOTT.

AN engraving has just been published in London, from a drawing by the architect, Mr. Kemp, of the monument to the memory of Sir Walter Scott, at Edinburgh. It is a Gothic elevation, something in the style of what are called "crosses," and bears in some portions a resemblance of the great tower of the Cathedral at Antwerp. It is in style between the florid and the simple Gothic, having flying buttresses, finials, crockets, &c., and being ornamented with quatre feuil, and more minute embellishments. There are many tabernacles, but they are not occupied by figures. The statue of Sir Walter is placed in the centre, beneath the principal arch. It is robed in a flowing drapery, and stands on a pedestal.

CHRONOLOGY.

FOREIGN.

AUSTRALIA. By a census of the population of the colony taken on the 2d of March, 1841, the total number was given at 130,856.

Free population, males,	61,324
“ “ females,	40,425
Bond, males,	23,844
“ females,	3,133

128,726

Employed in colonial vessels, 2,130

Total, 130,856

The total number of houses was 16,776, of which 6,375 were of stone or brick, and 10,401 of wood.

In the county of Cumberland, which includes the towns of Sydney, Paramatta, Liverpool, Campbell Town, and Richmond, there were 56,108 souls. Notwithstanding the large accession to the number of inhabitants occasioned by the continued arrival at Sydney and Port Philip of ships with emigrants, the demand throughout the colony for laborers was in November last greater than the supply. By the evidence of Capt. King,

R. N., (a colonist of great local experience,) given before a committee of the legislative council in July, 1841, it appeared, that if from 10,000 to 12,000 working hands were to arrive in the colony during the succeeding twelve months, that number would, in his opinion, not exceed the wants of the colonists. The local government was fully apprised of the unexpectedly large influx of laborers to be expected from the emigration which had taken place from the United Kingdom; but it was known that, unless the stream were continued, it would be wholly inadequate. And, as respected sheep farming, it was doubtful whether industrious weavers from Paisley, or button-makers from Birmingham, were not more acceptable to the colonists than people brought up in, and exclusively devoted to, their own especial systems and branches of husbandry.

HAMBURG, May 5. About 1 o'clock in the morning a fire broke out in the Deichstrasse, which raged for three days, involving the destruction of a large portion of this ancient city. At this period the tide was low, and the engines were unable to check the fire in its first out-

break. The flames immediately spread to neighboring warehouses, which, with their combustible contents, were soon destroyed, while the fire made further ravages in every direction. The Deichstrasse consists in great measure of warehouses; some of the principal merchants transact business there.

The wind was very high, and the fire spread before it with alarming rapidity. At 2 o'clock in the afternoon, the Nicolai church, one of the oldest and most celebrated in the city, was found to have taken fire. All the exertions of the firemen to save it proved unavailing, and it burned through the rest of the day. In this church, the same morning, much of the furniture had been deposited, which was saved from the earlier ravages of the flame. At the same time, the Hopfenmarkt, the principal market place of the city, in which were three of the principal hotels, and the Rodingsmarkt, and the Bosenhalle, were entirely in flames. The same night the Senate House and the buildings around it were destroyed, as were the Bank, the old and new Exchanges. The vaults of the Bank, however, were uninjured, and we may here remark, that the fire produced no injurious effect on the public credit. It was understood that all the books of the Bank were saved, and as it was known that the specie was uninjured, no doubt was entertained of its sustaining itself.

Through the 6th the fire extended in such a way as to defy all the ordinary means of prevention. At times, it appeared as if the whole city would be destroyed. The Senate, which was constantly engaged in measures for the security of the city, began early on the morning of the 7th a series of explosions with a view of checking the progress of the flames. These measures proved partially successful, and a slight change of wind also tended to check the progress of the conflagration. Its course was thus directed, however, towards St. Peter's church, one of the finest buildings in Europe. The Neuerwall and Jungfraustieg, containing some of the finest buildings in the city, were also in part destroyed at this time. The exertions of the workmen saved the body of St. Peter's church, however. A train of artillery, sent from Hanover, arrived in the afternoon, and proceeded to batter down several buildings between it and the Jungfraustieg, in the hope of checking the progress of the flames in that direction.

The means thus taken proved in a measure efficacious; the fire had extended to the Binnean Alster, and on that side, of course, its ravages were stopped. On the morning of the 8th, the wind nearly ceased, and heavy showers of rain took place. These circumstances put an end to this tremendous conflagration.

We have the following statistical details of the destruction of property: Streets destroyed, 61; lanes do., 120; houses do. in streets, 1992; small houses in lanes, 498; cellars, 466; inhabitants dispossessed, 21,526. Churches destroyed, 3, namely, St. Peter, St. Nicolas, St. Gertrude. The value of the private buildings is estimated at 47,000,000 marks banco, in the mutual assurance effected by the municipalities, and the public buildings at 10,000,000, making together 57,000,000, equal to £3,363,000. The furniture and goods are estimated at £2,963,000, making the total value of the property £6,326,000. The amount insured in the foreign insurance companies on furniture and goods is estimated at 10,000,000 marks banco, or £741,000, but we are informed, on very good authority, that this item is so overrated, says a London paper, that it throws a doubt upon the accuracy of the statement of the aggregate loss sustained. The liabilities of the English insurance companies will not exceed, at the very utmost, £450,000; and, according to the most recent accounts, £420,000 is held as nearer the truth. It is further rendered perfectly certain, that even the latter account will be very materially reduced; for, as the researches into the ruins proceeded, considerable amounts of property were rescued daily, which was constantly increasing the salvage to the English companies.

The government intends to indemnify the native insurance offices, by bearing the whole, or such portion as they cannot make good of the general loss; but this indemnity will not extend to merchandise.

The utmost sympathy was excited in different parts of Europe and America on the receipt of this distressing intelligence, and large sums of money were subscribed for the relief of the sufferers.

LONDON, May 6. WILL OF THE LATE DUKE OF CLEVELAND, K. G. The will of the late Harry, Duke of Cleveland, has been just proved in the Prerogative Court, by the executors, Henry, Lord Brougham, and Vaux, Mr. Thomas Metcalf, and Mr.

G. B. Wharton. The personal property has been sworn under £1,000,000, upon which a stamp-duty of £13,000 has been paid. The property has been bequeathed principally to his family, consisting of the present duke, Lords William Poulett, and Harry Vane, Ladies Laura Meyrick, (who is abroad,) Arabella Arden, and Augusta Milbanke, with the exception of some legacies and annuities to his servants. Lord Brougham and his executors are bequeathed £1,500 each. The late duke's personal estate is the largest left by any peer of his elevated rank since the late duke of Sutherland, whose personal effects were sworn as amounting to more than £1,000,000, all sums beyond which amount are not subject to probate duty. The dowager duchess is handsomely provided for under the late duke's will.

LONDON, May 10. THE HON. COMPANY'S STEAM-FRIGATE ACBAR. On Sunday at noon this splendid war-steamer left her anchorage at Gravesend, bearing the pendant of Commodore Pepper, of the Indian navy, who will assume the command of all the Company's ships-of-war now serving in China, under Admiral Sir W. Parker. The Acbar is a steam-frigate of the first class, armed with two eight-inch guns, and four long thirty-two-pounders, with a complement of 160 men; carrying five boats, on two of which are mounted brass twelve-pound howitzers. The engines are of the collective power of 350 horses, manufactured by Napier of Glasgow, and of a very superior description. She has four copper boilers of about seven tons each. The perfect and beautiful arrangements of the engine-room, the care which is every where observable for the health and comfort of the firemen and the crew in general, the cleanliness and beautiful adaptation of every part to the uses for which they are intended, reflect the highest credit on the parties concerned. The officers' accommodations are very superior; and the apartments allotted to the Commodore are of such a magnificent description, as would reconcile even a landman to a life at sea. The armory is filled up with 100 percussion muskets, pistols, cutlasses, and musketoons, &c., the whole in beautiful order, and presenting a most warlike appearance. The liberality and taste displayed by the Hon. the Court of Directors in fitting out the Acbar is worthy the highest praise; especially in the extensive and valuable library supplied for the use of the officers and

crew, who seem fully to appreciate the advantages of serving their Hon. masters. The Acbar carries 500 tons of coal, which with a consumption of a ton an hour, will enable her to steam twenty successive days. A few such efficient vessels, and we shall soon hear that our celestial friends have been visited with a lucid interval. The Acbar made her passage from Gravesend to Falmouth, a distance of 370 miles, in 36 hours, which gives an average speed of more than 10 miles an hour. This is the best proof of her capabilities, and renders it highly probable that she will arrive in Singapore in the short space of eighty-five days. The quiet and orderly manner in which the men conducted themselves, and the perfect ease and readiness with which every order was executed, excited the admiration of all those who enjoyed the pleasure of the trip.

LOSS OF BRITISH STEAM-PACKET MEDINA, May 11. The steam-ship Medina, Captain Burney, one of the line of British West-India packets, was wrecked at night off Turks Island, on the north-eastern reef. The passengers, stores, mails, and furniture were saved, but the vessel bilged and became a total loss. The steam-ship Tweed, of the same line of packets, was at Turks Island, and received the passengers and mails.

LONDON, May 30. This afternoon, while the Queen, with Prince Albert, was taking her afternoon drive, an attempt was made to take her life. A young man, who had previously been noticed standing with his back against the brick wall skirting the gardens of Buckingham Palace, was observed to advance towards the carriage road, along which the royal cortege was passing, and upon the carriage approaching the spot at which he stood, he was seen by a constable named Tanner, to advance within three yards of the carriage, and at the same instant draw out, apparently from his waistcoat pocket, a pistol. Tanner instantly rushed towards him, for the purpose of knocking it out of his hand, seeing that it was aimed at her Majesty, but at the moment he seized him the pistol went off, fortunately without injuring either her Majesty's person, or that of Prince Albert. The royal carriage, which was at this moment of the attempt proceeding at a quick pace, continued its course towards Buckingham Palace, and the prisoner was conveyed to the lodge adjoining, where he was searched by Mr. Russell, the in-

spector on duty, who found in his pockets a bullet and some powder, as well as the pistol, which was still warm, and affording convincing proof of its recent discharge. At the same time that this account was published, it was also made known, that, on the day before, while the Queen was riding, this same person, standing near the same spot, had drawn a pistol, apparently intending to fire upon her. She had been apprised of the circumstance, but made no alteration in her daily course of proceeding, and took her ride as usual, only declining to be accompanied by any of the ladies of her suite.

On investigation, it appeared that the prisoner's name was John Francis. He was a young man, of about twenty years of age, with no appearance of insanity, and apparently with no particular object in view. It has not appeared that he was connected with any political society, or that he had any accomplices. After his examination at the home office, he was committed to Bridewell.

The utmost indignation at the attempt was manifested in every quarter, and addresses were voted by both Houses of Parliament, and several other public bodies, congratulating the Queen on her escape.

LONDON, June 3. Information was received from Paris, that a telegraphic despatch from Marseilles had communicated further intelligence from Afghanistan, in anticipation of the arrival of the overland mail. This intelligence was such as to excite anxiety, and deep curiosity for the arrival of the mail itself. The British regiment at Ghuzni, or Ghizni, had surrendered on condition that they should be conducted safely to Cabul, ignorant apparently of the fall of that post. On the other hand, General Follenk had obtained command of the Khyber Pass. General Sale had made a successful sortie from Jellalabad.

In the next Number of the Chronicle we shall be able to give fuller details of these transactions.

EARTHQUAKE IN THE WEST INDIES, May 7. About five o'clock in the afternoon of this day, was felt the first of several terrific shocks of an earthquake, which was attended with the most disastrous consequences. It extended over a large surface, including the whole of the island of Hayti. The most easterly point at which it was perceived was the town of Guayama in Porto Rico. the most westerly was Kingston in Jamaica;

these cities are about 1,300 miles apart. Guayama is near the parallel of 18 N. latitude. We have no accounts of any shocks felt on land at any southern point; but the concussion was distinctly felt at the Caicos, which lie four degrees further north.

These places were at the extreme parts of the shock, and felt comparatively little of its effects. The island of Hayti lies directly in the middle of the district over which it spread, and there, particularly in the northern and western parts, its ravages were terrific. The city of Cape Haytien, (formerly Cape Française, or Cape Henry,) situated on the northern shore of the island, was entirely destroyed. It was a handsome town, built principally of stone, and containing about 12,000 inhabitants, being the capital of the northern part of the island, and the principal depot of its agricultural produce, and one of the chief commercial cities. The accounts agree in stating that this beautiful city was at once reduced to a mass of ruins, only two buildings being left standing. The day happened to be a market day, on which numbers of persons and animals from the surrounding country were in the city. It is supposed that seven or eight thousand persons were killed at once by the falling ruins. So sudden was the catastrophe, according to the account of an eye-witness, that hardly three seconds were allowed them to escape from the houses. Thousands were buried alive, and no relief at hand. This was not the end of the distresses of the devoted city. Many of the officers of government having lost their lives in the shock, the surviving inhabitants, free from the restraint of law, gave themselves up at once to pillage of such valuables as they could obtain from the ruins. The city being a depot for all the articles imported for the supplies of the interior, an immense quantity of merchandise was generally kept on hand for that purpose. At the period of the dreadful visitation, the supplies were abundant, and the stores crowded with goods. These at once were seized upon by the marauders. Hundreds of individuals pouring in from the country, commenced overturning the crumbling ruins, and drawing forth from thence all the merchandise and valuables of whatever kind they could lay hold of, despatched the same to their different hiding places. Opposition was for some time useless,

and a summary execution was necessarily resorted to by the authorities to strike a salutary terror. Many of the marauders were shot, and now, to crown the whole with the extremity of horror, a slow fire, which had arisen and had been gradually creeping onwards from the time of the catastrophe, spread at once into a general conflagration, consuming what had escaped the former calamity and the sacrilegious hands of pillage. This conflagration, in its progress, reached a powder magazine, the explosion of which added to the other horrors, with which the naked and starving survivors were surrounded. A violent storm of rain extinguished the fire, but another a few days after completed the destruction of the first.

Many of the smaller towns in the northern and western parts of the island suffered terribly, though we find no mention of other disasters so awful as those of Cape Haytien. Santiago, an inland town, formerly of some note, but greatly reduced by the devastations of the servile war, was entirely destroyed; about 200 persons lost their lives out of a population of 6,000. La Vega, and St. Osero, small interior places, met a similar fate. In Port au Prince, the capital, in the southwestern part of the island, two severe shocks were felt; but although almost every house was somewhat injured, none were overthrown, and no lives were lost. The city is chiefly built of wood; to this fact is its preservation attributed. At St. Mark and Gonaives, farther north, on the western coast, the shock was more severe, yet but few lives were lost. Porto Plata, east of Cape Haytien, on the northern coast, suffered severely, but there was no loss of life. Porto Paix and St. Nicolas, (la Mole,) on the northwestern part, were almost entirely destroyed. St. Domingo, the capital of the former Spanish part of the island, situated on the southeastern side, was greatly injured, many of the dwellings being rendered untenable, but we do not learn that any lives were lost. The river Orama, on which the city stands, was raised eight feet above its usual height.

Besides these places which we have mentioned, St. Louis du Nord, Port Dauphin, Limbe, Port Margot, Borgne, La Grande Riviere du Nord, Laxavon, and Altamira, are named as having suffered seriously. The shock was felt, with more or less severity, in all parts of the island.

Some of the various accounts which have reached us bear the marks of the exaggerations of fear and rumor, but we believe that the accuracy of the statements which we have given may, in general, be relied upon.

The President at once ordered the physicians and surgeons of the hospital at Port au Prince to proceed immediately to Cape Haytien, for the succor of the wounded there. The Chamber of Representatives, on the recommendation of the President of Hayti, has passed a law to exempt the inhabitants of the districts devastated by the recent earthquake, from taxes. The Senate, at its sitting on the 23d May, concurred.

The shocks of the earthquake continued at intervals for several days after the 7th. In some places, as many as forty distinct shocks were enumerated. On the same day, about 3 o'clock in the afternoon, slight shocks were felt in different parts of the states of Louisiana and Mississippi. On the 21st of May, a slight shock was felt in the island of St. Bartholomew. This is one of the leeward islands, lying about 250 miles to the east of Guayama, the most easterly point of the shock of the 7th.

PARIS, May 8. A distressing accident took place this afternoon at Meudon, on the Versailles Railway, of the left bank of the Seine. There had been a grand fête at Versailles, a play of the great waterworks, fireworks, &c., and a vast number of persons were traversing the railroads. The train to which the accident occurred consisted of two engines and eighteen carriages. It left Versailles at half-past five for Paris. As it passed through Meudon, the first engine was suddenly arrested and thrown off the track by the breaking off of an axle, this was with its tender broken in pieces by the second engine, and the three first passenger cars were forced upon the wreck of the engines in one mass. These cars were crowded with passengers, having a large number on the top, and the condition of those within was rendered more desperate, by the doors being locked, according to the usage prevalent on some of the European railroads. The fire of the two engines, the coke from the two tenders, and the deposits of oil and grease for the engines and cars were thrown into one heap, and the three carloads of passengers upon the same pile. The consequence was that 42 passengers

who were inside the three cars, some of whom were females, were so dreadfully burnt before they could be extricated, that they were not recognizable. The train, which was very heavily loaded, appears to have been travelling with an unusual degree of velocity. The injury was apparently greater from the fire than from the shock. Among the killed was the celebrated circumnavigator, Admiral Dumont d'Urville, with his wife and child. They were so mutilated as to be identified with difficulty. Mr. Dumonsteir, Professor of Phrenology, who was attached to the last French Exploring Expedition, recognized M. d'Urville's skull, of which he had frequently taken casts. Several of the bodies could not be recognized. A large quantity of jewelry and other similar articles were sifted from the ashes left after the disaster.

BERLIN, May 25. Conferences, at which his Majesty will preside, are to be held in a few days, respecting a new law as to censorship, which is to be founded on the most liberal principles. Under the name of the author every thing may be printed, which does not evidently manifest wicked or dangerous views. A board of censorship, consisting of the most enlightened and judicious men, are to decide on the abuses of the freedom of the press in the first and last instance.

BERLIN, May 28. The ministerial paper, published to-day, contains a circular letter from M. Van Rochow, the Minister of the Interior, to the Chief Presidents of the provinces, enjoining them to send in general accounts of the periodical press and daily literature in the provinces. The minister observes, on the great importance of the periodical press, which has become indispensable to the people of all classes; and remarks, that the contents and the tone of the journals of a province, afford a safe clue to the intellectual proficiency of the inhabitants; and that a view of the collective periodical literature of all the provinces would furnish a striking feature of the intellectual physiognomy of the nation. For the purpose of attaining this object, the presidents are directed to furnish the minister with a general review of the periodical literature of their respective provinces. As this is a new field of inquiry, experience must teach the best mode of proce-

cuting it. It may, however, be useful to attend to the following fundamental laws in drawing up the reports. All our journals are to be considered as objects of this report, which require a license from the ministry. They may divide into such as are political, scientific, industrial, or legal, (namely, contrary to official ordinances, &c.) The report is to state the character and tendency of the journals; their value and usefulness; how many printed; their circulation in the provinces, and the class of readers. Accounts of the foreign journals are to be added, giving an estimate of the number of copies circulated in the provinces, and among what class of readers. This detailed statement is required in the first report only; after which an annual report, to be made in February, will state the changes that have taken place in the course of the year.

BUENOS AYRES. The Federal Government, (General Rosas's) has for a succession of months been engaged in attempting to put a stop to the insurrection raised by the Unitarios, who had retired to the northern provinces, where they were assisted by General Rivera, of the Banda Oriental, [see Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 523.] Recently, Rosas's forces, under General Oribe, have obtained a series of decided advantages. The receipt of this intelligence in the city of Buenos Ayres was productive of the most disastrous consequences. Some of the members of the society of the Masorca, which is strongly attached to Rosas, elated at the news, began a series of public assassinations of the Unitarios, which lasted from the 11th of April, the anniversary of Rosas's installation, to the 21st, when, in obedience to an order of the dictator, who signified his abhorrence of the proceeding, the massacre entirely ceased. Meanwhile, a hundred and fifty or two hundred, alleged to belong to the party of the Unitarios, had lost their lives. By an order of government issued some time before, all the property of the Unitarios was confiscated for the use of government, comprising a large part of the real estate in the province. A decree of a few weeks before, opening the communication with the interior, forbade the Unitarios to leave the country, denying them passports. Many of them, however, have escaped secretly.

DOMESTIC.

CONCORD, N. H. The Legislature met, and was organized. Hon. Josiah Quincy was chosen President of the Senate, and Samuel Swasey President of the House. The House consists of about 190 democrats, and 55 whigs.

The votes for Governor were counted on the next day. It appeared that Mr. Hubbard, (democrat,) who had 26,381 votes, was chosen. Enos Stevens, (whig,) had 12,234 votes; John H. White, (democrat) had 5,509, and Samuel Hoyt, 2,812. The whole number of votes was 48,104.

NEW YORK, JUNE 27. The water of the Croton Aqueduct was let into the great reservoir at Yorkville this day in the presence of 20,000 people, who had assembled to witness an event promising so much advantage to the city. On the 22d inst. the water had been admitted into the aqueduct at Croton, but the sluices at the receiving reservoir were left unopened till some public notice could be taken of the event. On the 4th of July, the water is to be admitted into the distributing reservoir.

The main trunk of this aqueduct consists of an immense mass of masonry, six feet and a half wide, nine feet high, and forty miles long, formed of walls three feet thick, cemented into solid rock. But this water channel, gigantic as it is, is far from being all the work. The dam across the Croton, which retains the water in a grand reservoir, is a mound of earth and masonry, forty feet high and seventy feet wide at the bottom, and has connected with it many complicated but perfect contrivances to enable the engineer to have complete control over the mighty mass of water. The river, thus thrown back toward its source, will form a lake of five hundred acres, which will retain a supply for emergencies of some thousand millions of gallons, and also offer, as a collateral advantage, many picturesque sites for country seats upon the woody points which will jut out into its smooth basin. A tunnel leads the water from this reservoir into the Aqueduct, and eleven more of these subterranean passages occur before reaching Harlem River, having an aggregate length of seven eighths of a mile, and many of them being cut through the solid rock. At intervals of a mile, ventilators are constructed in the form of towers of white marble, which give to the water that ex-

posure to the atmosphere, without which it becomes vapid and insipid; and these dazzling turrets mark out the line of the Aqueduct to the passengers upon the Hudson.

The streams which intersect the line of the structure are conveyed under it in stone culverts, the extremities of which afford the engineers an opportunity of displaying their architectural taste. Sing-Sing Creek, with its deep ravine, is crossed by a bridge of a single elliptical arch of 69 feet span, and a hundred feet above the stream. Its unusually perfect workmanship was proved by its having settled but one inch after the centres were removed. The view of its massive grace from the narrow valley beneath, is one of the most striking points upon the line. Sleepy Hollow, well known to the readers of imaginative lore, is spanned by a series of graceful arches.

The bridge crossing Harlem River has been the subject of much controversy. The admirers of magnificent symmetry and perfection, and those interested in preserving the navigation of that stream, have warmly advocated the erection of a bridge, over which the water might pass upon its regular level; while the friends of more measured economy recommended a lower and cheaper structure, to which pipes should descend and rise therefrom after the manner of an inverted syphon. The plan finally adopted is that of a high bridge, but still with its surface ten feet below the usual grade, which falls fourteen inches to the mile. It is a quarter of mile long, one hundred and sixteen feet above high water, and its estimated cost exceeds three-quarters of a million. Across this the water is conveyed in huge iron pipes, protected from the frost by a covering of earth, four feet deep. Near Manhattanville is a tunnel, a quarter of a mile long, through the hill at that place; and its valley is crossed by pipes descending one hundred and five feet. Clendenning Valley is passed at an elevation of forty feet, and arches of appropriate size, upon the lines of the streets, leave symmetrical carriage-ways and foot-paths.

Great attention has been paid to the two great Reservoirs of this stupendous aqueduct. The receiving reservoir, at Yorkville, thirty-eight miles from the dam at Croton River, is in two divisions, both covering a space of thirty-five acres, capable of containing one hundred and sixty millions of gallons. It is enclosed by granite walls of solid masonry, roughly

finished. The bottom of the basin is the natural soil.

The distributing reservoir, at Murray's Hill, in Forty-Second street, is a much finer and more expensive work. It is nearly square, and covers an area of about five acres. The bottom is made of puddled clay, as smooth, hard, and water-tight as marble itself. The area is 440 feet square at the base, and is divided in the centre by a wall of granite 19 feet thick at the bottom, and 4 at the top. It is surrounded by a wall also of granite, composed of three distinct columns of solid masonry work. The outer column is five feet thick; the second six, and the third or inner one a lining of granite, about 15 inches in depth, placed upon a concrete masonry above 30 feet thick at the base. From the outside to the middle wall, the thickness of neither included, the distance is 14 feet; and from the extreme of the outer wall to the inner angle of the third, is 60 feet, the three walls uniting at the top. At a distance of 10 feet from each other, are thick cross walls with solid arches, thus binding the whole into one solid, imperishable mass. From the top of the northeast cornice to the level of the street, the distance is 56 feet. The depth of the reservoir is 40 feet; and it will contain water to the depth of 36 feet, or about twenty-two millions of gallons, as computed a few days since by James Renwick, Jr., one of the engineers employed on the work.

At the east end of the division wall a well has been sunk to the depth of 50 feet, communicating with a sewer below, and forming a waste-wier for the discharge of the surplus water, when it rises in the reservoir above the height of 36 feet. At the bottom of the well is laid a block of granite, weighing seven tons, and still further, to break the fall of the overflowing stream, and to prevent it from wearing away the stone, water to the depth of six feet rests permanently at the bottom. From the well, waste water is conveyed by a sewer nearly a mile, to the North River.

The whole work is now completed, with the exception of the high bridge. The bridge will occupy two years more, but a temporary pipe has been laid over the river upon the coffer-dams of the bridge, which will afford us a supply of water for two or three years, until the completion of the entire work. Its estimated cost, owing to the changes of plan, rise of labor and provisions, &c., has risen from five to twelve millions of dollars, a

great sum abstractly considered, but a trifling one compared with the benefits resulting from the work.

When the water was first admitted, the water commissioners, with their chief and principal assistant engineers, accompanied it in its passage down, sometimes in their barge, "The Croton Maid of Croton Lake," and sometimes on the surface of the aqueduct above.

We found, they say in their report, that the water arrived at the waste gates at Sing Sing, a distance of eight miles, in five hours and forty-eight minutes; here we suffered the water to flow out at the waste gates until 12 o'clock, M., when the gates were closed on a volume of about two feet in depth. The water then flowed on and arrived at Mill River waste gates at a quarter past 3 o'clock, a distance of five miles.

It was there drawn off through the waste gates for half an hour, and was, at quarter before 4 o'clock, allowed to flow on. We continued to precede it on the land, and to accompany it in our boat in the aqueduct, to Younkers, a distance of ten miles, where it arrived at half-past ten o'clock at night. Here we permitted it to flow at this waste gate until a quarter past six o'clock in the morning, when the gates were closed, and it flowed on and arrived at the waste gate on the Van Courtlandt farm, a distance of five miles and a half, in three hours and a quarter. Here we permitted it to flow out of the waste gates for two hours, when the gates were closed, and it flowed, in two hours and twenty minutes, a distance of about four miles and three quarters, down to the Harlem River, where the Commissioners and their chief engineer emerged to the surface of the earth in their subterranean barge, at one o'clock, June 23d.

The average current or flow of the water has been thus proved to be forty-five minutes to the mile, a velocity greater, we are happy to say, than the calculations gave reason to expect.

It is with great satisfaction we have to report, that the work at the dam, on the line of aqueduct proper, the waste gates, and all the appendages of this great work, so far as tried by this performance, have been found to answer most perfectly the objects of their construction.

RHODE ISLAND. During the past month, statements have been published by some of the parties concerned in the recent movements in this State, which throw additional light upon some points

of them. On the 26th of May, Mr. Dorr, the Governor under the "Suffrage" Constitution, published an address to the people, explanatory of his course on the 17th and 18th of May, [see Mon. Chron. p. 237.] He was induced, he says, to leave his head-quarters and retire from the controversy because he found his friends were rapidly leaving him, and he was unwilling to sacrifice in a useless contest those who remained firm. Besides this, Sheriff Anthony, in whose house he was, requested him not to make it the scene of a hostile encounter. Under these circumstances, "with a regret for which there are no words, I withdrew from head-quarters to the town of Cumberland."

The following extracts from this address embrace the most important parts of it, after the statement of facts:

"Being engaged on Tuesday, the 17th, in the preparations for the attack on the Arsenal, my attention was diverted from the proceedings of Mr. Anthony and others, relating to any compromise. At two o'clock in the afternoon of that day, Mr. Anthony addressed a company of more than one hundred persons, near his house, to the effect that the proposed military movement in the evening was unnecessary, as a compromise would probably be effected. Hearing his remarks, I at once asked him, in their presence, if he were attempting to countermand the orders which had been given?"

"He excused himself; and I then briefly addressed those who were present, and informed them that I knew of no such compromise, and called upon them to remain true to their Constitution."

"In the evening, Philip Allen and Crawford Allen, both near relations, called upon me on the subject of the existing difficulties. Mr. P. Allen called first, and endeavored to prevent the employment of force, as contemplated, to take possession of the public property. Mr. C. Allen called afterwards, at a late hour, and offered several plans for adjusting the controversy between the two parties. Every one of them appearing to involve the surrender of the Constitution, I replied to him that they were inadmissible."

"Next morning Mr. C. Allen called upon me again, after the arrangements for defence had been made by me, and our affairs had assumed the appearance which I have described in my former communication. He stated, that he had come as a

friend and relative to offer me a conveyance from our head-quarters, should I determine to retire. He came without my request or knowledge of his intentions. He stated, in the hearing of Mr. Anthony, and others, that he believed that the Charter Government entertained pacific intentions, and would not further harass the officers of the People's Government; but he added, that he spoke for himself, and not by authority. I recollect no mention by him of any compromise at this time. No importance was attached by me to this statement, relative to the disposition of the Charter Government. I have already explained the grounds of my determination to retire. The conveyance offered to me was accepted, because a friend in North Providence, also a devoted friend of the people's cause, who had made a similar previous offer, had not returned. From the manner in which these facts are stated in Mr. Anthony's letter, many may be led to infer motives and conduct on my part, of which I am incapable. I have made no compromise of the rights of others, or of my own."

"In the assurance that I have never compromised your rights, and have returned to friends and opponents a uniform reply, adverse to the abandonment of the principles of popular sovereignty and of equal rights involved in the support of your Constitution, allow me to add, that I have never compromised my own right to serve your cause. Having sincerely devoted to that cause all the abilities I possess, and having in your service sustained the loss of all things but honor, I may safely commit to you, fellow-citizens, my vindication from all unjust or ungenerous imputations, either upon my motives or conduct."

"I cannot conclude this communication without reminding you, that your Constitution, being founded in right and justice, cannot be overthrown by a failure of arms, or by the resignation of those elected to office under it; and that the duty to maintain it has not been affected by recent events."

Governor King, about the 1st of June, at which time Mr. Dorr was in Connecticut, asked from the Governor of that state permission to arrest him, if found within its borders. Governor Cleveland refused to comply. The Governors of New York and Massachusetts, in reply to similar requests, granted the leave required. A reward of \$1,000 was subsequently offered by the Government of the

state to any person who should arrest him.

Some arrests have been made of persons subordinately concerned in the suffrage movement; Mr. H. Smith, the Secretary of State under the new organization, was arrested on a charge of treason, and a man named Weatherby, for an attempt to steal some cannon in the town of Warren. The State Legislature met at Newport on the 21st of June.

The Legislature under the Suffrage Constitution adjourned, it will be remembered, to the fourth of July, [Mon. Chron. p. 235.] Many of its members have since resigned. About the twentieth of June, however, measures were seen to be in progress among some of the adherents of the suffrage party, which indicated the establishment of an armed force in Chepachet, in the northern part of the state, probably with some view to a meeting of that body. Munitions of war were seized in many places, and transported thither.

At this place Dorr collected such forces as he could, prepared to make a stand on a fortified hill and call together his Legislature in the village. His whole force amounted to about 700 armed men, most of whom, it was said, were not citizens of Rhode Island. They were intrinched on Arcott's Hill, and here he joined them himself on the 24th of June from New York.

Meanwhile, in the Assembly a bill had been introduced and passed, providing that a Convention should be called to frame a constitution for the state. All persons who have hitherto been permitted to vote, and all citizens of the United States resident in Rhode Island for three years being authorized to vote for delegates. Hearing of Dorr's warlike designs, the Legislature adjourned on the 25th to Providence, that they might be near the scene of danger, and on that day martial law was proclaimed by Governor King, agreeably to their order. The militia had been called out the day before, and were gathering in large numbers in Providence.

On the 26th, about 3,000 troops were assembled, who were put under the command of General William Gibbs McNeill, who at once took active measures for the suppression of the insurrection. On the 27th, he sent two brigades to take position in the rear of the insurgents, and cut off their retreat into Connecticut, while the rest of his forces attacked their camp

in front. On the night of the 27th, the advanced guard of 500 men quartered at Greenville, about eight miles from Chepachet.

On that night, however, Dorr, finding it impossible to resist the force brought against him, broke up his encampment and fled, and the next morning the forces of the government took possession of his intrenchments, almost without opposition. There were no lives lost on either side in the attack, and only two persons wounded.

There was, of course, great excitement throughout the State at these proceedings; but Dorr was not supported by the mass of the suffrage party, which, on the contrary, expressed itself satisfied with the provisions of the bill which had passed the Assembly. In a slight commotion at Pawtucket, the military were attacked by a mob, and fired upon them in return, killing one man. This is the only life lost, thus far, in the transaction.

UNITED STATES CONGRESS.

On the 1st of June, at the time of the publication of the last Number of the Chronicle, we spoke of the Apportionment Bill, the Remedial Justice Bill, the proposed tariffs on imports, and the naval and military appropriation bills, as still awaiting the action of Congress, although each of them had occupied the attention of that body.

The first of these subjects only, was so far matured as to become a law during the past month. The Senate, after a long discussion of the apportionment bill, (see p. 240,) amended it in its most important feature, raising the ratio from 50,179, at which number the House had fixed it, to 70,680, thus reducing the proposed number of Representatives to 223. The bill was also amended in the Senate by the addition of a clause granting an additional member to each State whose population is such that, after the regular process of apportionment had been made, there is a remainder larger than one half the ratio. In this form the bill passed the Senate on the 10th of June. It was at once sent down to the House. That body, after a day's debate, refused on the 14th to concur in either of the Senate amendments. The Senate the next day voted to insist on both amendments, and in this stage, the bill having come into the House a third time, it receded, and adopted both these amendments. The vote on the

ratio was 113 to 103; on the "fraction amendment," 110 to 102. The bill, as it passed, has two features, which have never before been introduced into the apportionment bills; the provision requiring every state to introduce the district system in choosing members of Congress, and that introducing the representation of fractions, which we have described under its provisions. The members of the House will be distributed thus during the next ten years.

Maine,	7
New Hampshire,	4
Massachusetts,	10
Rhode Island,	2
Connecticut,	4
Vermont,	4
New York,	34
New Jersey,	5
Pennsylvania,	24
Delaware,	1
Maryland,	6
Virginia,	15
North Carolina,	9
South Carolina,	7
Georgia,	8
Alabama,	7
Louisiana,	4
Mississippi,	4
Tennessee,	11
Kentucky,	10
Ohio,	21
Indiana,	10
Illinois,	7
Missouri,	5
Arkansas,	1
Michigan,	3

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The bill to provide further remedial justice in the Courts of the United States, [Mon. Chron. p. 240,] has been debated at several times in the Senate, but no vote has been taken upon it.

On the 3d of June, the committee of ways and means in the House, to which had been referred the project of the Secretary of the Treasury, [Mon. Chron. p. 240,] reported a bill for the raising of revenue. The House had thus before it the bill reported by the committee on manufactures, the minority report of the same committee, which did not recognize the principle of protection, the bill drawn up by the Secretary of the Treasury, and that of the committee of ways and means. By the provisions of the "Compromise Act," under which the national revenues have been collected since 1833, all duties levied under it were to be reduced on the

1st of July, 1842, to twenty per cent. The time remaining before that period to mature a tariff bill was so short, that under the direction of the committee of ways and means a bill was reported, to provide for the revenue of the country while the details of a new tariff were arranged. It provided that the present duties should be continued till the 1st of August. It also provided, that this continuance should not prevent the distribution among the states of the proceeds of the public lands. By a provision of the distribution act, as it passed at the last session, no distribution was to be made if at any time the duties on imports were raised above the scale indicated in the "compromise tariff." The closing proviso of the bill extending that tariff to August repealed this prohibition so far as this bill was concerned. Great opposition was made to this clause of the bill, but it passed the House without amendment, on the 15th of June, yeas 116, nays 103.

[The Senate varied the form of this closing proviso, by inserting in place of it a clause postponing the action of the distribution act till the 1st of August; by its own provisions, that act would take effect on the 1st of July. Thus modified, the bill passed the Senate on the 23d, and was concurred in on the 25th of the month. On the 29th, however, it was returned to Congress with the Executive veto, the President being unwilling to sanction the distribution of the proceeds of the lands, excepting as provided in the act of the last session.]

The House then recurred to the subject of a permanent tariff, which occupied it without any decision to our latest accounts, the 25th of June.

The naval and military appropriation bills have been detained, as was the apportionment bill, by a disagreement of the two Houses on their provisions. As these bills were reported in the House by the committees on the navy and the army, \$3,165,000 were appropriated for the increase, wear and tear of ships, and the pay of officers and men in the navy, through the year, and \$1,477,700 for the pay of the army. When the bills were discussed in committee of the whole House, it became evident that there was a strong desire, in some quarters, to reduce the amount of each of these appropriations, under a conviction that the expenses of each branch of the service had swelled to too large an amount, and that there was great profusion and waste in the expenditure.

Various amendments were therefore moved, proposing different degrees of reduction in the appropriations, and on these amendments long debates ensued as to the necessity of the reduction of the two services, and on the proper way of effecting such reduction. The naval appropriation bill was accordingly amended by a reduction of the appropriation for the navy to \$2,335,000, and the introduction of a proviso that the number of officers in the navy should not be increased after the present time, but should be reduced as rapidly as possible to the number in each grade on the 1st of January, 1841. In this form the bill passed on the 23d of May. The army appropriation bill was also amended by a proviso, that the recruiting service should cease till the army was reduced to 6,000 men, the basis of the army by the law of 1821, and also by a proviso cutting off one regiment of dragoons after Sept. next. Several of the separate clauses of appropriation were also reduced. These changes were not effected without earnest debate and strong opposition, and they passed by very small majorities. Thus amended, however, the bill passed the House on the 7th of June.

In the Senate, a large majority disapproved of the reduction of the army and navy in this manner. The finance committee reported several amendments to the naval appropriation bill, which restored many of the clauses which had been struck out in the House, and, in particular, raised the appropriation for the pay of officers and men to \$2,800,000. After considerable discussion, the most important of these amendments were adopted. The bill passed as amended, and was sent back to the House on the 17th of June. Immediately after, the committee on military affairs reported a bill providing for the reduction of the army from the existing basis, by a reduction of the size of the companies, proposing to make the army consist of 8,684 men, a reduction of about 2,000. In view of this bill, the finance committee raised the appropriation for the army nearly to what it had been, as reported by the military committee of the House, before the amendments of that body. The Senate concurred in these amendments to the army appropriation, and sent the bill down to the House to the 23d of June.

The question of an international copyright, which had excited for some months some share of public attention, was introduced into Congress by several memorials praying for the passage of such an act, and remonstrances against it. No action was taken in either House on the subject, but it was announced in the Senate that the committee on the judiciary, to whom the subject was referred, did not favor the scheme, and would report against it, when they reported on the subject.

A bill passed both branches, and received the signature of the President, refunding to the State of Maine, from the National Treasury, the expenses she incurred in the winter of 1838, '9 in calling out her militia to repel the trespasses on the disputed territory.

On the 13th of the month a resolution was offered the House, similar to that in force during the last session, prohibiting any member from speaking more than one hour in debate, either in committee of the whole, or in the House. The resolution was strongly opposed as an infringement of the liberty of debate, but it passed by a vote of 120 to 64, and it has had a happy effect in checking the loquacity of speakers, and restricting debate within reasonable limits.

The health of Mr. Southard, the Senator from New Jersey, who has officiated as President pro tempore of the Senate since Mr. Tyler's elevation to the Presidency, compelled him, on the 31st of May, to resign that office. He retains his seat in the Senate. This resignation made the selection of another President pro tempore necessary, and on a second ballot Mr. Mangum of North Carolina was elected. Mr. Mangum had 23 votes, Mr. Bayard of Delaware 13, Mr. King of Georgia 3, and two scattering votes were thrown. A vote of thanks to the late President was moved and passed unanimously.

The hopes that were entertained that his health might be regained by a respite from the labors of the Chair, proved groundless. His disease assumed a more violent form, and on the 25th of June he died at Fredericksburg, much lamented by his fellow citizens.

THE MONTHLY CHRONICLE.

JULY, 1842.

ARTICLE IX.

THE BALTIMORE AND OHIO RAILROAD.

THE Baltimore and Ohio Railroad was projected, and its original capital was subscribed, in 1828. The eastern portion of it was laid out, and the work upon it was prosecuted with such activity, that in 1830, twelve miles, including one of the most expensive portions of it, were opened for use, other portions of the work being then far advanced. It was pressed forward with as little delay as possible to the town of Frederick, and to the Potomac River, but was there arrested by a controversy with the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal relative to the right of way, and by the insufficiency of funds to complete it.

From the want of experience to determine the best methods both of location and construction, some important mistakes were made on this part of the road, which involved a sinking of a considerable amount of capital, compared with what would have been available, had it been reserved for the construction of the most eligible work on the same route at the present time. Unfortunately this loss has not been made up by the profits of the road while it has been in operation, but it has been on the contrary augmented by the loss of income, in consequence of its not having reached any proper terminus for rendering it productive. The amount of population and business along the route was not sufficient to authorize the expectation of much income from the road, so long as it remained in an unfinished state, or until it should be so far finished as to command a great portion of the travel between the valley of the Ohio and the Atlantic states.

It is, perhaps, fortunate, that no greater amount of capital was expended at an early period of the undertaking, as with the knowledge now acquired it can be prosecuted to much greater advantage, in regard to the expense of the work, its adaptation to its objects, and its durability. Nor have the prospects of the enterprise suffered materially from a quarter where much was apprehended, namely, the previous accomplishment of rival works for the same general object. The Pennsylvania works, consisting partly of railroads, and partly of canals, afford a very unsatisfactory route for travellers, and a costly one for the transport of merchandise, and no important improvements of that route are to be expected, at least for many years. Were there present means for completing the most perfect of the projected Pennsylvania routes, it would be more expensive, and would have greater obstacles to surmount, than the Baltimore and Ohio. The Charleston and Cincinnati Railroad is not likely to be ever accomplished. The New York and Erie Railroad cannot be completed for many years, and if ultimately completed, it will be much longer and more expensive than the Baltimore and Ohio. The only other route which can be considered in any degree a rival of this, is that by way of Buffalo and Albany, the length of which, between those two termini, is about equal, exclusive of the distance of Buffalo from the Ohio, and of Albany from the Atlantic.

The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, therefore, has in prospect at this time, as fully as when it was projected, the command of the principal part of the travel and transport of costly merchandise, between the Ohio and the Atlantic; the magnitude of which, besides increasing with the advance of the country, will be greatly augmented by the rapidity and cheapness of the transit. The truth of this is so obvious from a mere inspection of the map, and a comparison of distances on all the practicable routes, that it does not seem to need further proof or illustration. The decided superiority of this route is sufficiently illustrated by the fact, that when the railroad shall be completed, the journey over it, beginning either at Wheeling or at Pittsburgh, to Baltimore, and extended thence by railroad to Philadelphia, will be accomplished in less time, with greater ease and at less cost, than by passing through the state of Pennsylvania over the public works, in the most eligible course.

This decided superiority will be fully attained only when the railroad shall be completed, either to Wheeling or to Pittsburgh, it being intended that it shall reach both those points. The length of the railroad from Baltimore to Pittsburgh will be 337 miles, and to Wheeling 374; the point of divergence being 60

miles from the former place, and 97 from the latter. But the object will be in a great measure attained when the railroad from Baltimore shall reach Cumberland, which is at the eastern termination of the Macadamized National Road leading from that point to Wheeling. The distance by railroad from Baltimore to Cumberland will be 177 miles, and thence by the national road to Wheeling, 131 miles, making a total of 308 miles. The former will be travelled by locomotives in about 10 hours, and the latter by stage-coaches in 20 or 24 hours, so that the journey from the Ohio to an Atlantic city will be performed by this route in a much shorter space of time, and at less cost, than by any other, even before the completion of the railroad between Cumberland and the Ohio. There can be no doubt, therefore, that on the extension of the railroad to Cumberland, there will be a large increase in the number of passengers upon it, both from the ordinary intercourse of business between the Western and Atlantic states, and from the current of emigrants who are peopling the West.

For similar reasons there will be an increase in the transit of merchandise, though not in the same proportion. From the intermediate country, however, there will be greater proportional increase in the tonnage of merchandise, than in the number of passengers. The rich valleys south of the Potomac and west of Harper's Ferry, through which the route passes, now covered with beautiful crops of wheat, must afford a considerable surplus for market, which can find no outlet equal to that of the railroad. Confident expectations are also entertained, apparently on good grounds, that large supplies of coal will be brought by the railroad to market at Baltimore, from the mines eight miles west of Cumberland. This coal is ascertained to be of superior quality, and easily mined, in any desirable quantities. Should there be no disappointment in regard to the value or abundance of this coal, there is no doubt, that it may be conveyed to Baltimore over the railroad, at such a cost as to afford a profit to the proprietors, and be in demand at that place in large quantities.

In regard to the probable amount of increase in these several branches of traffic, there do not appear to be data for forming any precise estimate. According to the computations of Mr. Knight, which appear to be made with great care and accuracy upon the data assumed, the annual net produce of the several distinct sources of revenue anticipated from the railroad as soon as it shall be opened to Cumberland, is estimated at the following sums, namely: the business of the old part of the road to Harper's Ferry, \$97,000; the increased tonnage over the mountains, together with the way tonnage between Harper's Ferry and Cumberland, and the coal at Cumberland, 33,240 tons, affording a net revenue of \$105,900;

from passengers, estimated at 87 in each direction daily, a net income of \$252,900; net income of the Washington Branch, \$77,000; mail transportation, at \$300 a mile, \$53,100; making a total amount of \$587,500. This estimate for the immediate produce of the road may, perhaps, be considered as rather extravagant, especially in the amount and produce of the transport over the mountains. There can be no doubt, however, that the produce of the road, after discharging the current expenses, will be sufficient to pay all the debts for construction which have been charged upon it, and besides to afford a considerable annual dividend of profits to the stockholders.

The old track from Baltimore to the Potomac and to Harper's Ferry has been thoroughly repaired, the stone sills being abandoned, and a new and more substantial rail being substituted on part of the line. In addition to this, the line has been extended, and has been already opened for use from Harper's Ferry, a distance of 42 miles, to near the town of Hancock, and it is fully graded and ready for laying down the iron a further distance to Cumberland, making a whole length from Baltimore, as above stated, of 177 miles. The iron for this last portion of the road is already purchased, and is on its way from England; and it is expected that it will be entirely laid down by the 1st of October next. The part of the road which has been lately made, and is now in progress, is formed of a heavy and substantial iron rail, and the track has been located and the rails laid with all the care to avoid former errors, and to profit by the experience of this and all other railroads, which the utmost prudence could dictate. Under the management of skilful and judicious engineers, the extended line has been laid out with great judgment, and a form of construction has been chosen, well adapted for strength and durability. It strikes one as a little singular, that while the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, which terminates out of the State in the District of Columbia, pursues the northern bank of the Potomac, and is in nearly its whole course in the state of Maryland, the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, which is exclusively a Maryland work, terminating at Baltimore, crosses the Potomac at Harper's Ferry, and continues thence the whole distance, of near a hundred miles, on the Virginia side of the river. This arises from the choice of route having been first granted by the legislature to the Canal. The railroad, however, makes a saving of some miles in distance, by passing through the great valley of Virginia, at a distance from the Potomac.

The old portion of the road from Baltimore to Harper's Ferry, a distance of 82 miles, consists for the most part of a track of the original form of construction, namely, of wooden sills covered

with an iron plate rail. This was originally a double track, but at present, on a considerable part of the line, one of the tracks has been taken up, and the materials have been used in the repair of the track which is retained. This remaining track is kept in good repair, and for the kind of rail used, it is throughout in good order. The recent repair appears to have been so thorough, that the cost of repairs for succeeding years is not likely to exceed that of the past year, until it shall be resolved to replace the present defective form of rail, with one which shall be more substantial and durable. In some parts a solid rail has been already substituted. A prominent defect in this portion of the road, besides that in the form of construction, is the frequency of short curves, as the route winds through the valley of the Petapsco. Very many, if not all these curves may probably be modified, to the great improvement of the road, by a new location, and without any very great expense. The reason why greater pains was not taken to avoid them in the original construction of the road, was that it was then supposed that a method had been invented of constructing the wheels, which would render curves in the track in a great measure harmless. The grades on this portion of the road are not excessive, except at one point, namely, in passing Parr's Spring Ridge, where the ascent on one side, and descent on the other, for a distance of several miles, is equal to about 83 feet in a mile. In consequence of the frequency of curves throughout the line from Baltimore to Harper's Ferry, the usual speed of passenger trains does not exceed an average, stops included, of 15 miles an hour. Parr's Spring Ridge was originally passed by means of inclined planes adapted to the use of stationary engines, two such planes being built on each side of the ridge. These planes have been recently removed, and in place of them is provided a track a little more circuitous, over which the locomotives travel with ease. After passing this ridge, the route descends through the valley of the Monocacy River to the Potomac. This is a rich and beautiful tract of country, abounding in large and luxuriant fields of wheat, as we have mentioned above. On reaching the Potomac, at a place called the Point of Rocks, we come in contact also with the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, a costly and magnificent work, which extends along the left bank of the Potomac, from the District of Columbia, 120 or 130 miles. Hence the railroad and canal proceed side by side along the bank of the broad and majestic river, a distance of ten or twelve miles, to Harper's Ferry, the railroad being frequently crowded closely in upon the overhanging rocks, and the canal occupying the narrow space between it and the river, the banks of each being frequently supported by massive and costly walls. The

canal is beautifully finished, with even banks, being 60 feet wide at the surface, and with a depth of six feet of water. The locks are of large size, and substantially built of hammered stone masonry, laid in cement.

At a distance of 82 miles from Baltimore, by the railroad route, we come in full view of the town of Harper's Ferry in Virginia, which is situated upon a promontory at the north of the entrance of the Shenandoah River, between that river and the Potomac. The banks of the two rivers on all sides are high and precipitous, and the summits are covered with forest trees. The extensive view which is afforded of the two broad and rapid rivers which here unite their waters, and the bold and varied features of the broad landscape, render the scene quite a striking one. The town itself appears small, and there is not much in its architectural embellishments, to add to the beauty of the view. A substantial wooden truss bridge upon high and massive stone piers, resting upon the rocky bottom of the river, carries the railroad across the Potomac to Harper's Ferry; and at the point of reaching the right bank, it divides, sending forward the Winchester road along the left bank of the Shenandoah, while the Baltimore and Ohio, by a curve to the right, pursues the bank of the Potomac, passing between the river and the machine-shops of the United States Armory. The road is here carried along, upon a high embankment of heavy stone-work, built into the river, to prevent any interference with the space appropriated to the workshops.

Soon after passing Harper's Ferry, the railroad leaves the bank of the Potomac, and pursues a westerly course at some distance from the river. It passes through a rich country, mostly well cultivated, and abounding in extensive wheat fields, the product of which must enhance the transportation on the road. The railroad from Harper's Ferry to Cumberland, a distance of 97 miles, is in a great portion either level or varying little from a level, and its highest grade does not exceed 40 feet in a mile. It is also free from short curves, there being very few of less radius than 2,000 feet. Few houses are to be seen along the road, and few villages are passed through, yet from the state of cultivation it has the appearance of a well peopled country, or at least of one capable of supporting a numerous population. After passing for a distance of some twenty miles through the counties of Jefferson and Berkley, the route again approaches the river, and thence passing round a point of North Mountain, it pursues its course for the most part along the bank of the river in full view of its broad and turbid stream.

The railroad track from Harper's Ferry, as far as it extends to the west, is formed of a heavy bridge rail laid upon sleepers most-

ly of oak, and fastened at the end of each rail by a nut and screw. The road bed is raised in a great part upon embankments, and where it passes through cuttings, it is well drained, and is secured against the effects of wet and frost, by a ballasting of broken stone. The road appears to be in every respect of a substantial and durable construction. The masonry, of which there are several pretty extensive structures, is mostly of a sort of gray limestone, hammered, and laid in cement. At convenient intervals watering stations are provided, at most of which the reservoirs are inclosed within stone buildings of an octagonal form, and supplied with water from neighboring springs in the high grounds, by means of iron pipes.

The Atlantic section of this work being thus near its accomplishment, the public attention is turned with renewed interest to the western section, extending from Cumberland to the Ohio River. The vast and varied tract of country yet to be traversed by the route, presents a wide field for exploration and inquiry, for the selection of the best course. The company have caused very extensive and elaborate examinations and surveys to be made, under the direction of their chief engineer, Mr. Knight, and a volume has been published, exhibiting the results of these inquiries. We shall not here attempt a full statement of these results, but shall present briefly a description of one of the routes surveyed, which has the preference of the engineer, and seems likely, from its apparent comparative advantages, to be adopted in its general course, though it is not improbable that it may be subject to many variations, with a view to such improvements as further investigation will suggest.

The first question to be determined in the selection of the route westwardly from Cumberland, is, which of the several tributaries of the Potomac shall be followed up, in pursuit of the most eligible point for crossing the great ridge of the Alleghany Mountains, which separates the waters of the Atlantic from those of the Ohio. That which appears to be entitled to the preference, is Wills Creek, which unites at Cumberland with the north branch of the Potomac, coming into it from the northwest. Beginning at the termination of the Atlantic section of the road, three fourths of a mile below Cumberland, the route passes around the town on its northeastern margin, to the narrows of Wills Mountain, where it crosses Wills Creek, and the national road. It thence pursues the western branch of the creek, in a northerly direction, crossing Braddock's Run, and again crossing the national road, which here turns directly towards the west. It continues along a fine expanse of bottom land, crossing Jennings's Run, and Gladden Run, to the mouth of Little Wills Creek, eight miles north of the

Pennsylvania line, and thirteen miles from Cumberland, the grade hardly exceeding in any part 26 feet per mile. The route then takes a westerly direction along the same creek, which here assumes the character of a mountain ravine, and continues at a grade of from 57 to 66 feet per mile for a distance of 22 miles, passing through the breaches made by the stream in the Little Alleghany, and Great and Little Savage Mountains, to near the eastern base of the Great Alleghany, or Meadow Mountain. From this point the route passes for a short distance along the slope of the mountain to a depression called the Sand Patch, where it crosses the crest of the ridge at a distance of 36 miles from Cumberland, and at a height of 1,670 feet above that town, and 2,290 feet above tide-water. The route thence descends by Flaherty Creek through a cleft in Meadow Mountain, at a grade of 66 feet per mile, to Myer's Mills, near the confluence of that creek with Casselman's River, a branch of Youghioghany, and one of the tributaries of the Ohio.

The length of this route, by which the whole of the formidable mountain region will be traversed, by a grade not exceeding 66 feet in a mile, and with a maximum curvature of 500 feet radius, is 41 1-2 miles. The estimated cost of graduation, masonry, and construction, with a double line of railway, is estimated at \$1,905,000, or about \$46,000 per mile. This route pursues the valley, which was preferred by the United States Board of Internal Improvement for the route of the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal west of Cumberland, and it is stated that in case that work should be extended across the mountains according to the original design, an event which is not very likely to happen, no necessary collision would arise from a want of room for both works.

From Myers Mill, the route continues, by the valley of Casselman's River, to its mouth at Turkeyfoot, a distance of 30 1-2 miles, and thence by the valley of the Youghioghany, a further distance of 25 1-2 miles, to Canoe Hollow, 2 1-2 miles east of the town of Connelssville. The route along these two rivers pursues a meandering course, in the midst of lofty hills, and breaking through several mountains on the Casselman, crossing several times from one bank to the other, and on the Youghioghany confined chiefly to its left bank. In the whole distance of 56 miles, the road will have either a level or a descending grade, never exceeding 26 1-2 feet in a mile, and the minimum radius of curvature is 573 feet. The whole descent from Myers Mill to Canoe Hollow is 1,094 1-2 feet, and from the summit at the Sand Patch, a distance of 60 1-2 miles, the descent is 1,404 1-2 feet. The elevation at Canoe Hollow is 885 3-4 feet above the level of tide. The estimated cost of graduation, masonry, and construction of these 56 miles

of railway, with a double track, is \$1,749,553, or \$31,242 per mile.

At Canoe Hollow, near Connelsville, the Wheeling and Pittsburgh routes divide, the former leaving the valley of the Youghiogany, and proceeding by Bandrin's Run and the valley of the Redstone, to Brownsville, on the Monongahela, where it crosses the national road; thence along the west bank of the Monongahela, through the village of Fredericktown and Millsborough, and up the Ten-Mile Creek to Clarksville; and thence by the north Fork of Ten-Mile Creek to its summit; thence down Terupleton's Creek to the mouth of Owing's Run; and thence descending Wheeling Creek 28 3-4 miles to the town of Wheeling. The distance by this route is 97 1-2 miles; the maximum grade 53 feet per mile; and the minimum radius of curvature 573 feet. The height of the termination at Wheeling is 628 feet above the level of tide-water, and 50 feet above low water in the Ohio. The estimated cost of grading, masonry, and construction, is \$2,946,995, or about \$30,200 per mile.

The Pittsburgh Branch proceeds from Canoe Hollow, along the right bank of the Youghiogany, to its mouth, and thence by the right bank of the Monongahela, to the town of Pittsburgh, a distance of 60 1-3 miles, with a maximum grade of 21 feet per mile, and rarely exceeding 13 feet, the maximum curvature being on a radius of 750 feet. The total of the ascending grades is 42 feet, and of the descending grades, 178 feet, the termination at Pittsburgh being 750 feet above the level of tidewater. The estimated cost, for a single track, is \$1,519,264, or \$25,000 a mile.

According to these measurements of distances and estimates of cost, the length of railroad from Cumberland to Wheeling will be 195 miles, with a maximum grade of 66 feet in a mile, and the cost of grading and masonry and construction, computed with the exception of 28 1-2 miles on Wheeling Creek for a double track, with an iron rail weighing 50 pounds per yard, \$6,601,548. If the estimate be limited to a single track, it reduces the cost to \$5,039,016.

If we add to this the 60 1-3 miles of the Pittsburgh Branch, it makes a length of road yet to be constructed of 255 miles, at a cost of \$8,120,812, and for an entire single track, \$6,558,280.

This review of the character of the route over which the railroad is yet to be constructed, shows its entire feasibility, at a rate of expenditure by no means formidable, when regarded in the face of the great objects to be attained by the accomplishment of the work. It appears that the maximum grade, even in the mountain section of the route, is less by seventeen feet in a mile

than the highest grade which is daily traversed without difficulty, at Parr's Spring Ridge, on the eastern section of the road; and less by fourteen feet in a mile than the grades which are regularly passed on the Massachusetts Western Railroad, both by passenger trains, travelling with rapidity, and by freight trains travelling with very heavy loads. Curvatures occur on many of the mountainous parts of the line, which it would be desirable to avoid, if it were practicable; but these objectionable curvatures are far less excessive, and less frequent than those which occur on the part of the road between Baltimore and the Potomac; 500 feet being the minimum radius of curvature proposed to be admitted on any part of the road which is yet to be built. The railroad, therefore, when built, between Cumberland and the Ohio River, will be of a character, so far as it will be affected by the face of the country through which it passes, to admit of its being travelled with entire facility, and with any degree of rapidity which can be reasonably desired.

Of the amount of business which may be expected on such a line of communication, it is extremely difficult to make any satisfactory estimate. The change produced by the opening of the route itself is so great, as to render very uncertain, as a basis of calculation, the data derived from the previous state of things. The experiment which has been made of the road thus far affords very little evidence for testing its future success. The experiment of another year, embracing the operations upon the road extended to Cumberland, will go much further towards affording this test, because then, as has been already remarked, the route will be confessedly the best between the two great regions of country, and will, therefore, command a large portion of the existing travel. But the effect of increasing the amount of travel, by its increased rapidity and cheapness, will remain in a great measure to be produced on the opening of the whole railroad. When we consider the extent of population to whom the means of nearer access to one another will be thus offered, and the vast amount of the products of each region, which are demanded among the supplies of daily subsistence in the other, we cannot hesitate in the belief, that the degree of travel and of transportation of merchandise will be very great, and will ultimately afford an ample remuneration for the expense of this great work.

The chief engineer of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, in a report, which has been recently printed, has made some curious and interesting calculations of the cost of transportation on that road, founded on the actual experience of the last three years. These calculations do not give the most favorable view of the efficiency of this mode of transportation, in regard to cost, for sev-

eral reasons, particularly the heavy expense of repairs arising from the form of construction of the road, and the smallness of the trains, both for passengers and freight, arising from various causes, partly temporary in their application.

According to these statements and calculations, the aggregate of receipts for the transport of passengers, mail, and merchandise, in 1839, was \$407,267, and of expenses, \$296,585, leaving a net revenue of \$110,682. The number of miles run by locomotive engines, with passenger trains, was 101,031; equal to 1,263 trips of 80 miles from Baltimore to Harper's Ferry; and the number of miles with freight trains was 191,282; equal to 2,391 trips. The cost of passenger trains was 90 cents per mile, and the average of passengers was equal to 27 by each train through the whole line. The cost of freight trains was 113 cents per mile, and the average of freight per train was equal to 24 tons through the whole line. The average cost of conveyance of each passenger per mile was 3 1-3 cents, and of each ton of goods per mile, 4 1-2 cents nearly.

In 1840, the total of receipts was \$433,592; of expenses, \$281,891; and of net revenue, \$151,701. The number of miles run by passenger trains was 107,604, equal to 1,345 trips; and the number of passengers was equal to 33,559 carried through the whole line of 80 miles, or 25 passengers through for each trip. The number of miles run by freight trains was 249,947; equal to 3,124, or ten trips per day. The amount of freight was equal to 66,767 tons carried through; or 21.3 tons per train. The cost of passenger trains was 81 cents per mile, and of the conveyance of each passenger, 3 1-4 cents per mile. The average cost of freight trains was 78 cents per mile, and of freight 3 2-3 cents per ton per mile. The low cost of the freight trains per mile is to be attributed to the great number and light loads of the trains, the general expenses being apportioned on a great number of miles. The high cost of transportation per ton, and for each passenger, is in a great degree attributable to the same cause.

In 1841, the whole amount of receipts was \$394,826; of expenses, \$240,986; and of net revenue, \$150,840; there being a large falling off in the amount of freight transported, in consequence of the failure of the year's crop. The number of miles run by passenger trains was 109,872, equal to 1,373 trips. The number of passengers carried was equal to 31,199 carried through the line, averaging 23 per train. The cost of passenger trains was equal to 80 cents per mile, on an average of 3 1-2 cents per mile for each passenger. The number of miles run by freight trains was 189,745, equal to 2,372 trips, or 7.6 daily. The quantity of freight was equal to 45,589 tons carried through the line,

or 19.2 tons per train. The average cost of freight trains was 81 cents per mile, and the cost of freight 4.2 cents per mile. The charge for passengers was 5 cents per mile, and for freight, an average of 5 1-2 cents per mile.

The expenses for freight transportation for 1841 were thus distributed: 1st, locomotive expenses, including repairs and renewal of engines and tenders, fuel, oil, enginemen and firemen, with animal power in the streets of Baltimore, 1,743 cents; 2d, repairs of road, and stations, 1,318 cents; 3d, repairs and renewal of cars, 0.471 cents; 4th, transportation expenses, agents, conductors, brakemen, depot laborers, oil for cars, &c., 0.476; 5th, general office expenses, 0.192; total, 4,200 cents. The average charge on freight having been 5.522 cents per mile, the net profit was equal to 1.322 cents per ton per mile.

Mr. Knight's estimate of the future cost of freight transportation between Harper's Ferry and Baltimore, when the cost of fuel shall be reduced by obtaining coal from Cumberland, the repairs of cars reduced by the introduction of improved cars, and the average tonnage increased to 25 tons per train, is as follows, namely: locomotive expenses, 1.119 cents; horses in Baltimore, 0.222 cents; road repairs, 0.999 cents; cars, 0.25; transportation department, 0.397; general expenses, 0.148; total, 3.135 cents, instead of 4.2. He estimates further, that the cost of freight between Harper's Ferry and Baltimore, on the present track, will be ultimately reduced by the increase of business to 2 3-4 cents for the mixed business of the road, and to a less price for the coal transportation.

His estimate of the cost of transportation per ton per mile, between Harper's Ferry and Cumberland, calculated on an amount of 28,720 tons per annum, in each direction, is as follows, namely: motive power, 0.395 cents; road repairs, at \$650 per mile, 1.132; cars, 0.250; transportation expenses, 0.397; general office expenses, 0.148; total, 2.322. This estimate is for the mixed trade. Coal transportation will be reduced to 1 1-2 cents. He estimates the average of coal from Cumberland to Baltimore, at 2 cents per ton per mile, and of the mixed trade, when increased in amount, at 2.3 cents per mile.

ARTICLE X.

THE WAR IN AFFGHANISTAN. NO. II.

SINCE the publication of our first article on the war in Affghanistan, intelligence of a material change in the condition of affairs there, of important advantages gained by the British forces, and of the weakness and dissensions of the leaders of the insurgent Affghans, has been received in England, by several successive overland Indian mails.

It will be remembered that Sir Robert Sale had determined to maintain his post at Jellalabad, confident that the order to surrender it, which he had received from General Elphinstone, would not be approved by the supreme government of India.* This determination met, of course, the high approbation of that Government. Just at the time when the measures for regaining the British power in Affghanistan were taken, Lord Ellenborough, the new governor-general appointed by Sir Robert Peel's administration, arrived from England and superseded Lord Auckland, under whose administration the policy in regard to Affghanistan had been adopted.

A slight delay appears to have been experienced in the adoption of a definite course of measures for regaining British influence in the insurgent province, because Lord Auckland was unwilling to bind by a permanent policy his successor, at that time momentarily expected. Measures had been taken, however, for the relief of Jellalabad. The forces of Major Gen. Pollock had been at once put in motion for a junction with Sir Robert Sale, who had gallantly maintained his position in that city. He had been through the winter besieged with more or less strictness by the Affghan forces under Akhbar Khan. General Pollock had the chief command of the British forces west of the Indus, after the defeat and capture of General Elphinstone.

A considerable delay intervened before Gen. Pollock could collect his forces, with camels and forage, so far as to justify him in an attempt to force the Khyber Pass, lying between Peshawer, where his force lay, and Jellalabad. It was known that this formidable pass was in possession of the Affghan troops, who would not, it was supposed, surrender it without a formidable resistance. The strength of the pass may be inferred from the fact, that hitherto, the leaders of armies which have marched through it have frequently purchased

* We refer, in general, to our Article No. VII. of this volume of the Chronicle, for a narrative of the events in the beginning of the Affghan war.

an uninterrupted passage from the chiefs residing in the neighborhood, not caring to incur the risk of forcing their way. In consideration of this formidable obstacle, and of the Affghan force threatening Sir Robert Sale, General Pollock, after sending, in January, an advanced force as far as Ali Musjid, at the entrance of the pass, postponed an attempt to force it until he could collect his army and stores.

Feeling, at length, sufficiently strong, in the beginning of the month of April, he marched with his army. The opposition with which he met seems to have been less formidable than he anticipated; on the 5th of April he forced the pass, dispersing a considerable body of Affghan troops which occupied the heights, after a smart skirmish, and thus securing his passage without any material loss. He met with no other opposition of importance, and reached Jellalabad on the 16th of the month.

Meanwhile Sir Robert Sale had taken energetic measures for the defence of this city. The Affghan forces surrounded him in considerable numbers, under the command of Akhbar Khan himself. This chief, about the time that General Pollock actually forced the Khyber Pass, in the hope of exciting his men, circulated among them an account of the defeat of Pollock and his retreat to Peshawer. Of this pretended intelligence General Sale was at once informed by his spies, and, although he did not give full credit to it, he thought best to take measures by a sally and attack on the besieging force, to free himself from them if possible, and send troops to assist General Pollock in opening his way. On the 7th of April, accordingly, he made an attack upon Akhbar Khan, who had drawn up his forces to receive him. The result was the entire defeat and route of the Affghan army, numbering 6,000 men. Their camp was burned, and several pieces of British artillery, which had been taken at Cabul, were recaptured. The following is that part of Sir Robert Sale's despatch, which gives an account of the circumstances of this victory:

" From Major-General Sir R. Sale, K. C. B., to Captain Ponsonby, Assistant-Adjutant General.

" JELLALABAD, April 7, 1842.

*" SIR, — Information was on the evening of the 5th instant brought into this place, in the most positive and circumstantial terms, from spies in the enemy's camp, to the effect that the force under General Pollock, C. B., had met a reverse in the Khyber, and retraced their steps towards Peshawer, and about 10 P. M., on the 6th, a *feu de joie* and salute of artillery was fired by Mahommed Akhbar, which was said to be in honor of the event. It was on the same day, and through similar channels, announced to me that the Affghans were sending reinforcements to aid*

in defending the frontier passes. Although I could not wholly depend upon these statements, which were improbable in themselves, and accompanied by counter reports of another revolution at Cabul, which was assigned by some as the cause of the rejoicing of the defeat of the Affghans in the Khyber, and by one account of the intended and even actual retreat of the Sirdar to Lughnan, I came, on a full consideration of the various circumstances and rumors, to the resolution of anticipating the last mentioned event, by a general attack on the Affghan camp, in the hopes of relieving that place from blockade, and facilitating General Pollock's advance. I accordingly gave directions to form three columns of infantry, the centre consisting of the 13th Light Infantry and 500 rank and file, under Colonel Dennie, C. B.; the left, of the 35th Native Infantry and 500 rank and file, under Lieutenant-Colonel Monteith, C. B.; and the right, of the 13th Light Infantry, another of the 35th Native Infantry, and the detachment of sappers and miners, under Lieutenant Orr, (the severity of Captain Broadfoot's wounds still rendering him non-effective,) the whole, 350 strong, commanded by Captain Havelock, of her Majesty's 13th Light Infantry. These were to be supported by the fire of the guns of No. 6 Light Field Battery, under Captain Abbott, to which Capt. Backhouse, of Shah Shoojah's Artillery, was also attached, and by the whole of my small cavalry force under Captain Oldfield and Lieut. Mayne. The troops issued from the Cabul and Peshawer gate at daylight this morning. So far from the Sirdar having made dispositions to avoid the encounter, his whole force, not falling short in all of 6,000 men, was formed in order of battle for the defence of his camp, the right resting on a fort, its left on the Cabul river, and even the ruined works, within 800 yards of the place, were filled with Ghilzee marksmen, and recently repaired for stout resistance. The attack was led by the skirmishers and column, under Captain Havelock, who drove the enemy in the most satisfactory manner from the extreme left of his advanced line of works, which they pierced at once, and proceeded to advance into the plain; whilst the central column directed its efforts against a square fort, the defence of which was obstinately maintained. With the deepest regret I have to mention, that whilst leading his regiment to the assault, Col. Dennie, C. B., of her Majesty's 13th Light Infantry, received a shot through the body, which shortly after proved fatal. The rear of this work having been gained by passing to its left, I gave orders for a combined attack on the enemy's camp. It was in every way brilliant and successful. The artillery advanced at the gallop, and directed a heavy fire on the Affghan centre, whilst two of the columns of infantry penetrated his line at the same point, and the third drove his left back from its support on the river, into the stream of which some of his horse and foot were forced.

“ The Affghans made repeated attempts to check our advance by a smart fire of musketry, and throwing forward heavy bodies of horse, which twice closely threatened the troops under Captain Havelock, and by opening against us four guns from a battery screened by a garden wall, and said to have been served under the personal superintendence of the Sirdar; but in a short time they were dislodged from every point of their position, their cannon taken, and their camp involved in a general conflagration.

gration. The battle was over, and the enemy in full retreat, in the direction of Lughnan, by about 7, A. M. We made ourselves masters of two cavalry standards, recaptured four guns lost by the Cabul and Gundamuck forces, the restoration of which to our Government is received by the forces with much honest exultation, and destroyed the whole of the enemy's tents. In short, the defeat of Mahommed Akhbar by the force which he boasted of blockading has been, in the open field, complete and signal."

As we have said above, General Pollock's forces reached Jellalabad on the 16th. We have no accounts of the subsequent movements of the combined army. Up to our latest dates, the commanders were engaged in collecting supplies from the neighboring country, with a view to a recapture of Cabul. A regiment, under Colonel Bolton, which did not arrive at Peshawer in time to accompany Gen. Pollock, subsequently marched through the pass to Jellalabad without difficulty.

About the same time the English forces, under the command of General Nott, who was quartered at Candahar, in the Duraunee territory, southwest of Cabul, met with similar successes. On the 28th of March, General England, who was on his march from Quetta to Candahar, having in charge a convoy of treasure and stores, together with 1,500 camels, experienced a repulse from the Affghans at Hykulzye, near the Kojuck (or Kozuk) Pass, which is about intermediate between those two places. Not wishing to put his convoy to risk, he retreated upon Quetta without any material loss. General Nott had meanwhile sent a force to meet him, which had dispersed with loss such of the natives as opposed it. On hearing of General England's retreat, he sent to him at Quetta "a letter, couched in the most severe and authoritative terms, ordering him to march again for Candahar with his entire force." General England at once obeyed, and proceeded to Candahar, having struck his camp at Quetta. He met with no opposition till he arrived again, on the 27th of April, at Hykulzye, the scene of his former discomfiture. At this place a large body of Affghans was collected, and a brisk engagement ensued, which resulted in their defeat with a loss of 30 killed. There was no reason to anticipate any further check in General England's advance to Candahar; at the latest dates, he had but a short march before him.

There were, therefore, it will be seen, at the end of April, two British armies in Affghanistan, unchecked by any native force: the command of General Nott at Candahar, and that of General Pollock at Jellalabad. General Nott, as well as General Pollock, was believed to be engaged in preparing an advance on Cabul. The state of things there had materially changed since the first

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successes of the insurrection, which resulted in the recapture of Cabul by the Affghans, and the annihilation of the British garrison of that city. The accounts which we have already published of the breaking out of the insurrection comprise all of these successes with the exception of the recapture of Ghuzni. This city was held by Col. Palmer with one regiment of troops. He received, after the fall of Cabul, instructions from General Elphinstone bidding him to surrender his post. He appears to have had some hesitation as to obeying these instructions; but, finding himself pressed on all sides by the enemy, while his own force labored under great disadvantages, and was too small to maintain its position, he capitulated on the 1st of March, on condition that he should be allowed a safe retreat to Cabul. He could hardly have been fully aware of the state of things in that city. He had, before his capitulation, been compelled to retire from the town of Ghuzni into the citadel. We copy his despatch announcing this event:

“GHUZNI, March 1.

“SIR — It is with much concern I acquaint you, that from want of water, and by an overpowering force, under cover, and within fifty yards of us in the city, I have been compelled to enter into terms to evacuate the citadel and fort within six days. The garrison is to occupy the north-east corner of the town. The garrison is exhausted by fatigue and constant duty, and the men have suffered greatly from cold, the thermometer having been 14 below zero. The terms are, honorable treatment and safety whilst here and on the march to Cabul, solemnly sworn to by the chiefs. In capitulating, I have only acted up to the orders of Major Pottinger and General Elphinstone, who directed me in an official letter to evacuate the citadel and city on the arrival of Rohilla Khan, son of Ameenoolah Khan, Sirdar of Logur. The chief arrived, and promised to escort us in safety to Cabul. Amoon Shumsooden Khan, nephew of Dost Mahommed Khan, has also arrived as Governor of Ghuzni, and as political agent. I received instructions to march immediately on his arrival for Cabul, from the late Sir William McNaghten, Bart. Abandoned as this garrison has been in the very centre of the enemy's country, cut off from all communication with any quarter, and without a sufficiency of water even at this season, with 200 men detached to hold an outpost which is destitute of water, and must have fallen in forty-eight hours, nothing but capitulation remained; from the outpost falling into the hands of the enemy, they would command our only well and commanding fort, and the whole garrison would have been destroyed in a few days. The bearer has received only subsistence on the road, and is to receive a handsome reward on delivering this letter. We have upwards of 100 sick and wounded, and 137 casualties. The officers, including Captain Burnett, 54th, and Lieutenant Crawford, Shah Shoojah's force, are all well. I have, &c.,

“J. Palmer, Lieutenant-Colonel, Political Agent, commanding at Ghuzni.

"P. S. There is great reason to fear for our safety, as there are some thousands of Ghazees in the city, whom the chiefs cannot disperse. The snow is still deep. No tidings from the southward; but report says the troops hold the city of Candahar, and are daily fighting.

"To the Officer commanding at Jellalabad."

As in the case of the capitulation at Cabul, the conditions respecting the safety of the troops were entirely disregarded by the Afghans. On the 6th of March, as soon as they left the citadel, the troops were attacked by the Ghazees, and almost all massacred. A few of the officers and about 100 of the sepoy, were all that escaped. At the latest accounts they were still in captivity. Colonel Palmer's force had consisted of about 1,000 men of the Bengal Native Infantry.

This success on the part of the insurgents was almost immediately followed by an event at Cabul, which renders it impossible to form any judgment of the course which events, and the policy of different parties in Afghanistan will take. This event was the murder of Shah-Shoojah-ool-Moolk, the nominal king of the country. Since the expulsion of the British troops from Cabul, he had been permitted to retain the throne by the chiefs, who really had the power in their hands, in reward, apparently, of his connivance in the expulsion and destruction of his allies.

The date of this murder is not given in any of the accounts which have reached us. It appears to have taken place about the 1st of April. Shoojah had jealously kept himself in his palace, or strong-hold of the Bala Hissar. About the time which we have named, however, four chieftains, Newaub Zemaun Khan, Oosman Khan, Ameen Oolah Khan, and Jubar Khan, who is the brother of the exiled Dost Mahomed, gained his confidence by the most solemn protestations, and by great promises, in which they professed the utmost zeal for him, and induced him to prepare an army to march against the British at Jellalabad. They succeeded in persuading him to leave his palace to go out of the city and review a portion of these troops. On the road he was shot, with several of his attendants, by an ambush of fifty men, commanded by Shoojah ood-Dowlah, who acted apparently under the directions of his father, Newaub Zemaun Khan, who, as we have said, was one of the persons engaged in this conspiracy to entice the king from his palace. With their consent and connivance, apparently, Prince Futteh Jung, the son of the murdered monarch, was crowned king, but he was himself killed by an opposing party a day or two afterwards, and the most reckless anarchy ensued. Timor Shah, another son of Shoojah-ool-Moolk, was one of the claimants of the throne; he was supposed to favor the British interests, and to hope for British protection.

Such is a brief sketch of the state of affairs in Affghanistan at the close of April, comprising the latest accounts which have reached us. There were there at that time two British armies, one at Candahar, and one at Jellalabad, both tolerably well supplied, and unmolested by the immediate presence of the enemy. Akhbar Khan's force, which he had concentrated before Jellalabad, was in great measure broken up by his defeat of April 7th; he had retreated with the remnant into the mountains. In the action of that day he was himself wounded; there was a rumor that he had died of his wound. Lastly, at Cabul there was a considerable force of Affghan troops, but the city was in great confusion on account of the assassinations of Shoojah and Futteh Jung. The course of the British Government, if their troops should retake Cabul, as they probably will, can hardly be conjectured.

Some negotiation had taken place respecting an exchange of prisoners, but none had been effected. General Elphinstone died in captivity on the 24th of April. Lord Ellenborough had before that ordered an inquiry as to his conduct to be made by a court-martial. A court-martial was also ordered to consider Colonel Palmer's conduct in the surrender of Ghuzni.

We shall give further accounts of the state of affairs as they reach us.

M I S C E L L A N Y .

RELATIONS WITH MEXICO.

CORRESPONDENCE between the Governments of the United States and of Mexico, communicated to the Senate of the United States July 13, 1842.

Letter from Mr. J. M. De Bocanegra, Secretary of State and Foreign Relations of Mexico, to Mr. Webster, Secretary of State of the United States.

[TRANSLATION.]

National Palace, Mexico, May 12, 1842.

The undersigned, Secretary of State and Foreign Relations, enjoys the satisfaction of addressing the honorable Secretary of State of the

United States of America, in the name and by the express order of his Excellency the President of the Mexican Republic.

The relations of amity and good harmony which have happily subsisted between this and your great nation might have been disturbed in a lamentable manner, since the year 1835, when the Revolution of Texas broke out, if the Mexican Government had not given so many evidences of its forbearance, and had not made so many and so great sacrifices for the sake of peace, in order that the world might not, with pain and amazement, see the two nations which appear to be destined to establish the policy and interests of the American continent divided and ravaged by the evils of war.

But, from that truly unfortunate period, the Mexican Republic has received nothing but severe injuries and inflictions from the citizens of the United States. The Mexican Government speaks only of the citizens of the United States, as it still flatters itself with the belief, that it is not the Government of that country which has promoted the insurrection in Texas, which has favored the usurpation of its territory, and has supplied the rebels with ammunition, arms, vessels, money, and recruits; but that these aggressions have proceeded from private individuals, who have not respected the solemn engagements which bind together the two nations, nor the treaties concluded between them, nor the conduct, ostensibly frank, of the Cabinet of Washington.

It is, however, notorious, that the insurgent colonists of that integral part of the territory of the Mexican Republic would have been unable to maintain their prolonged rebellion without the aid and the efficient sympathies of citizens of the United States, who have publicly raised forces in their cities and towns, have fitted out vessels in their ports, and laden them with munitions of war, and have marched to commit hostilities against a friendly nation, under the eyes and with the knowledge of the authorities, to whom are intrusted the fulfilment of the law.

The Mexican Government entertains so high an opinion of the force of the Government of the United States, and of its power to restrain those its subjects from violating the religious faith of treaties solemnly concluded between it and other nations, and from committing hostilities against such nations in time of peace, that it cannot easily comprehend how those persons have been able to evade the punishment decreed against them by the laws of the United States themselves, and to obtain that quiet impunity which incessantly encourages them to continue their attacks. It is well worthy of remark, that no sooner does the Mexican Government, in the exercise of its rights, which it cannot and does not desire to renounce, prepare means to recover a possession usurped from it, than the whole population in the United States, especially in the southern States, is in commotion, and in the most public manner a large portion of them is turned upon Texas, in order to prevent the rebels from being subjected by the Mexican arms, and brought back to proper obedience.

Could proceedings more hostile on the part of the United States have taken place, had that country been at war with the Mexican Republic? Could the insurgents of Texas have obtained a coöperation more effective, or more favorable to their interests? Certainly not; the civilized

world looks on with amazement, and the Mexican Government is filled with unspeakable regret, as it did hope, and had a right to hope, that, living in peace with the United States, your Government would preserve our territory from the invasions of your own subjects. The vicinity of a friend is an advantage rather than an inconvenience; but if one neighbor oversteps the sacred limits imposed by treaties, and disturbs and harasses another, it cannot be maintained that the friendship of the former is real, and that much confidence should be placed in it.

The Government of the Mexican Republic, therefore, which regards the faithful fulfilment of treaties as its highest obligation, which anxiously desires to preserve and increase its friendly relations with the People and the Government of the United States, finds itself under the necessity of protesting solemnly against the aggressions which the citizens of those States are constantly repeating upon the Mexican territory, and of declaring, in a positive manner, that it considers as a violation of the treaty of amity the toleration of a course of conduct which produces an incomprehensible state of things — a state neither of peace nor war; but inflicting upon the Mexican Republic the same injuries and inconveniences as if war had been declared between the two nations which are called by Providence to form with each other relations and bonds of extreme and cordial friendship.

And the undersigned, in complying with this order from the most Excellent Provisional President of the Republic of Mexico, assures you, Sir, of the high consideration with which he remains

Your obedient servant,

J. M. DE BOCANEGRA.

*To the Hon. Daniel Webster,
Secretary of State of the United States of America.*

Mr. Webster to Mr. Thompson.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, }
Washington, July 8, 1842. }

SIR: On the 29th of last month, a communication was received at this Department from Mr. de Bocanegra, Secretary of State and Foreign Relations of the Government of Mexico, having been forwarded through the agency of Mr. Velasques de Leon, at New York, who informed the Department, by a letter accompanying that of Mr. de Bocanegra, that he had been appointed Chargé d'Affaires of the Mexican Republic to this Government, although he had not yet presented his credentials. Mr. de Bocanegra's letter is addressed to the Secretary of State of the United States, and bears date the 12th of May. A copy, together with a copy of the communication from Mr. Velasques de Leon transmitting it, and of the answer to Mr. Velasques de Leon from this Department, you will receive herewith. Upon the receipt of this despatch, you will immediately address a note to Mr. Bocanegra, in which you will say:

That the Secretary of State of the United States has received a letter

addressed to him by Mr. de Bocanegra, under date of the 12th of May, and transmitted to the Department of State at Washington, through the agency of Mr. Velasques de Leon, at New York, who informs the Government of the United States that he has been appointed *Chargé d'Affaires* of the Mexican Republic, although he has not presented his letter of credence.

The Government of the United States sees, with regret, the adoption, on this occasion, of a form of communication quite unusual in diplomatic intercourse, and for which no necessity is known. An envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the United States, fully accredited to the Government of Mexico, was at that moment in its capital, in the actual discharge of his functions, and ready to receive, on behalf of his Government, any communication which it might be the pleasure of the President of the Mexican Republic to make to it; and it is not improper to here add, that it has been matter of regret with the Government of the United States, that while, being animated with a sincere desire at all times to cultivate the most amicable relations with Mexico, it has not failed to maintain near that Government a mission of the highest rank known to its usages, Mexico, for a long time, has had no representative near the Government of the United States.

But the manner of the communication from Mr. de Bocanegra, however novel and extraordinary, is less important than its contents and character, which surprise the Government of the United States by a loud complaint of the violation of its neutral duties. Mr. de Bocanegra, speaking, as he says, by the express order of the President of the Mexican Republic, declares that the amicable relations between the two countries might have been lamentably disturbed, since the year 1835, when the revolution of Texas broke out, had not Mexico given so many evidences of its forbearance, and made so many and so great sacrifices for the sake of peace, in order that the world might not see with pain and amazement two nations which appear destined to establish the policy and interests of the American continent divided and ravaged by the evils of war.

This language implies that such has been the conduct of the United States towards Mexico, that war must have ensued before the present time had not Mexico made great sacrifices to avoid such a result — a charge which the Government of the United States utterly denies and repels. It is wholly ignorant of any sacrifices made by Mexico in order to preserve peace, or of any occasion calling on its Government to manifest uncommon forbearance. On the contrary, the Government of the United States cannot but be of opinion, that if the history of the occurrences between the two Governments, the state of things at this moment existing between them, be regarded, both the one and the other will demonstrate that it is the conduct of the Government of the United States, which has been marked, in an especial manner, by moderation and forbearance. Injuries and wrongs have been sustained by citizens of the United States, not inflicted by individual Mexicans, but by the authorities of the Government; for which injuries and wrongs, numerous as they are, and outrageous as is the character of some of them, and acknowledged as they are by Mexico herself, redress has been sought

only by mild and peaceable means, and no indemnity asked but such as the strictest justice imperatively demanded. A desire not to disturb the peace and harmony of the two countries has led the Government of the United States to be content with the lowest measure of remuneration. Mexico herself must admit that, in all these transactions, the conduct of the United States towards her has been signalized, not by the infliction of injuries, but by the manifestation of a friendly feeling and a conciliatory spirit.

The Government of the United States will not be unjust in its sentiments towards Mexico; it will not impute to its Government any desire to disturb the peace; it acquits it of any design to spread the ravages and horrors of war over the two countries; and it leaves it to Mexico herself to avow her own motives for her pacific policy, if she have any other motives than those of expediency and justice: provided, however, that such avowal of her motives carry with it no imputation or reflection upon the good faith and honor of the United States.

The revolution in Texas, and the events connected with it and springing out of it, are Mr. Bocanegra's principal topic; and it is in relation to these that his complaint is founded. His Government, he says, flatters itself that the Government of the United States has not promoted the insurrection in Texas, favored the usurpation of its territory, or supplied the rebels with vessels, ammunition and money. If Mr. de Bocanegra intends this as a frank admission of the honest and cautious neutrality of the Government of the United States in the contest between Mexico and Texas, he does that Government justice, and no more than justice; but if the language be intended to intimate an opposite and a reproachful meaning, that meaning is only the more offensive for being insinuated rather than distinctly avowed. Mr. de Bocanegra would seem to represent, that from 1835 to the present time, citizens of the United States, if not their Government, have been aiding rebels in Texas in arms against the lawful authority of Mexico. This is not a little extraordinary. Mexico may have chosen to consider, and may still choose to consider, Texas as having been at all times since 1835, and as still continuing, a rebellious province; but the world has been obliged to take a very different view of the matter. From the time of the battle of San Jacinto, in April, 1836, to the present moment, Texas has exhibited the same external signs of national independence as Mexico herself, and with quite as much stability of Government. Practically free and independent, acknowledged as a political sovereignty by the principal Powers of the world, no hostile foot finding rest within her territory for six or seven years, and Mexico herself refraining for all that period from any further attempt to reëstablish her own authority over that territory, it cannot but be surprising to find Mr. de Bocanegra complaining, that for that whole period citizens of the United States, or its Government, have been favoring the rebels of Texas, and supplying them with vessels, ammunition, and money; as if the war for the reduction of the province of Texas had been constantly prosecuted by Mexico, and her success prevented by these influences from abroad.

The general facts appertaining to the settlement of Texas and the rev-

olution in its Government, cannot but be well known to Mr. de Bocanegra. By the treaty of the 22d February, 1819, between the United States and Spain, the Sabine was adopted as the line of boundary between the two Powers. Up to that period no considerable colonization had been effected in Texas; but the territory between the Sabine and the Rio Grande being confirmed to Spain by the treaty, applications were made to that Power for grants of land, and such grants, or permissions of settlement, were in fact made by the Spanish authorities in favor of citizens of the United States proposing to emigrate to Texas, in numerous families, before the declaration of independence by Mexico. And these early grants were confirmed, as is well known, by successive acts of the Mexican Government, after its separation from Spain. In January, 1823, a national colonization law was passed, holding out strong inducements to all persons who should incline to undertake the settlement of uncultivated lands; and although the Mexican law prohibited for a time citizens of foreign countries from settling as colonists in territories immediately adjoining such foreign countries, yet even this restriction was afterwards repealed or suspended. So that, in fact, Mexico from the commencement of her political existence held out the most liberal inducements to emigrants into her territories, with full knowledge that these inducements were likely to act, and expecting they would act, with the greatest effect upon citizens of the United States; especially of the southern States, whose agricultural pursuits naturally rendered the rich lands of Texas, so well suited to their accustomed occupations, objects of desire to them. The early colonists of the United States, introduced by Moses and Stephen Austin under these inducements and invitations, were persons of most respectable character, and their undertaking was attended with very severe hardships, occasioned, in no small degree, by the successive changes in the Government of Mexico. They nevertheless persevered and accomplished a settlement. And, under the encouragements and allurements thus held out by Mexico, other emigrants followed, and many thousand colonists from the United States and elsewhere had settled in Texas within ten years from the date of Mexican independence. Having some reason to complain, as they thought, of the Government over them, and especially of the aggressions of the Mexican military stationed in Texas, they sought relief by applying to the supreme Government for the separation of Texas from Coahuila, and for a local government for Texas itself. Not having succeeded in this object, in the process of time, in the progress of events, they saw fit to attempt an entire separation from Mexico, to set up a government of their own, and to establish a political sovereignty. War ensued, and the battle of San Jacinto, fought on the 21st of April, 1836, achieved their independence. The war was from that time at an end; and in March following, the independence of Texas was formally acknowledged by the Government of the United States.

In the events leading to the actual result of these hostilities, the United States had no agency and took no part. Its Government had, from the first, abstained from giving aid or succor to either party. It knew its neutral obligations, and fairly endeavored to fulfil them all. It ac-

knowledgeed the independence of Texas only when that independence was an apparent and an ascertained fact; and its example in this particular has been followed by several of the most considerable Powers of Europe.

It has been sometimes stated, as if for the purpose of giving more reason to the complaints of Mexico, that, of the military force which acted against Mexico with efficiency and success in 1836, a large portion consisted of volunteers then fresh from the United States. But this is a great error. It is well ascertained, that of those who bore arms in the Texian ranks in the battle of San Jacinto, three fourths at least were colonists, invited into Texas by the grants and the colonization laws of Mexico, and called to the field by the exigencies of the time in 1836, from their farms and other objects of private pursuit.

Mr. de Bocanegra's complaint is two-fold: first, that citizens of the United States have supplied the rebels in Texas with ammunition, arms, vessels, money, and recruits; have publicly raised forces in their cities, and fitted out vessels in their ports, loaded them with munitions of war, and marched to commit hostilities against a friendly nation, under the eye and with the knowledge of the public authorities. In all this Mr. de Bocanegra appears to forget, that while the United States are at peace with Mexico, they are also at peace with Texas; that both stand on the same footing of friendly nations; that since 1837 the United States have regarded Texas as an independent sovereignty, as much as Mexico; and that trade and commerce with citizens of a Government at war with Mexico cannot, on that account, be regarded as an intercourse by which assistance and succor are given to Mexican rebels. The whole current of Mr. de Bocanegra's remarks runs in the same direction as if the independence of Texas had not been acknowledged. It has been acknowledged; it was acknowledged in 1837, against the remonstrance and protest of Mexico; and most of the acts of any importance of which Mr. de Bocanegra complains, flow necessarily from that recognition. He speaks of Texas as still being "an integral part of the territory of the Mexican Republic;" but he cannot but understand that the United States do not so regard it. The real complaint of Mexico, therefore, is in substance neither more nor less than a complaint against the recognition of Texian independence.

It may be thought rather late to repeat that complaint, and not quite just to confine it to the United States, to the exemption of England, France, and Belgium, unless the United States, having been the first to acknowledge the independence of Mexico herself, are to be blamed for setting an example for the recognition of that of Texas. But it is still true, that Mr. de Bocanegra's specification of his grounds of complaint and remonstrance, is mainly confined to such transactions and occurrences as are the natural consequence of the political relations existing between Texas and the United States. Acknowledging Texas to be an independent nation, the Government of the United States of course allows and encourages lawful trade and commerce between the two countries. If articles contraband of war be found mingled with this commerce, while Mexico and Texas are belligerent States, Mexico has the right to inter-

cept the transit of such articles to her enemy. This is the common right of all belligerents, and belongs to Mexico in the same extent as to other nations. But Mr. de Bocanegra is quite well aware that it is not the practise of nations to undertake to prohibit their own subjects, by previous laws, from trafficking in articles contraband of war. Such trade is carried on at the risk of those engaged in it, under the liabilities and penalties prescribed by the law of nations, or by particular treaties. If it be true, therefore, that citizens of the United States have been engaged in a commerce by which Texas, an enemy of Mexico, has been supplied with arms and munitions of war, the Government of the United States, nevertheless, was not bound to prevent it, could not have prevented it, without a manifest departure from the principles of neutrality, and is in no way answerable for the consequences. The treaty of the 5th of April, 1831, between the United States and Mexico, itself shows, most clearly, how little foundation there is for the complaint of trading with Texas, if Texas is to be regarded as a public enemy of Mexico. The sixteenth article declares: "It shall likewise be lawful for the aforesaid citizens, respectively, to sail with their vessels and merchandise before mentioned, and to trade with the same liberty and security from the places, ports, and havens of those who are enemies of both or either party, without any opposition or disturbance whatsoever, not only directly from the places of the enemy before mentioned to neutral places, but also from one place belonging to an enemy to another place belonging to an enemy, whether they be under the jurisdiction of the same Government, or under several."

The 18th article enumerates those commodities which shall be regarded as contraband of war, but neither that article nor any other imposes on either nation any duty of preventing by previous regulation commerce in such articles. Such commerce is left to its ordinary fate, according to the law of nations. It is only, therefore, by insisting, as Mr. de Bocanegra does insist, that Texas is still a part of Mexico, that he can maintain any complaint. Let it be repeated, therefore, that if the things against which he remonstrates be wrong, they have their source in the original wrong of the acknowledgment of Texian independence. But that acknowledgment is not likely to be retracted.

There can be no doubt at all, that for the last six years the trade in articles contraband of war between the United States and Mexico has been greater than between the United States and Texas. It is probably greater at the present moment. Why has not Texas a right to complain of this? For no reason; certainly, but because the permission to trade, or the actual trading by the citizens of a Government in articles contraband of war, is not a breach of neutrality.

Mr. de Bocanegra professes himself unable to comprehend how those persons of whom he complains have been able to evade the punishment decreed against them by the laws of the United States; but he does not appear to have a clear idea of the principles or provisions of those laws. The duties of neutral nations in time of war are prescribed by the law of nations, which is imperative and binding upon all Governments; and nations not unfrequently establish municipal regulations for the better government of the conduct of their subjects or citizens.

This has been done by the United States, in order to maintain with greater certainty a strict and impartial neutrality, pending war between other countries. And wherever a violation of neutral duties, as they exist by the law of nations, or any breach of its own laws, has been brought to the notice of the Government, attention has always been paid to it.

At an early period of the Texian revolution strict orders were given by the President of the Government of the United States to all officers on the south and southwestern frontier, to take care that those laws should be observed; and the attention of the Government of the United States has not been called to any specific violation of them since the manifestation on the part of Mexico of an intention to renew hostilities with Texas, and all officers of the Government remain charged with the strict and faithful execution of these laws. On a recent occasion complaint was made by the representatives of Texas that an armament was fitted out in the United States for the service of Mexico against Texas.

Two vessels of war, it was alleged, built or purchased in the United States for the use of the Government of Mexico, and well understood as intended to be employed against Texas, were equipped and ready to sail from the waters of New York. The case was carefully inquired into, official examination was made, and legal counsel invoked. It appeared to be a case of great doubt, but Mexico was allowed the benefit of that doubt, and the vessels left the United States with the whole or a part of their armament actually on board. The same administration of even-handed justice, the same impartial execution of the laws towards all parties, will continue to be observed.

If forces have been raised in the United States, or vessels fitted out in their ports for Texian service, contrary to law, no instance of which has as yet come to the knowledge of the Government, prompt attention will be paid to the first case, and to all cases which may be made known to it. As to advances, loans, or donations of money or goods, made by individuals to the Government of Texas, or its citizens, Mr. de Bocanegra hardly needs to be informed, that there is nothing unlawful in this, so long as Texas is at peace with the United States, and that these are things which no Government undertakes to restrain. Other citizens are equally at liberty, should they be so inclined, to show their good will towards Mexico by the same means. Still less can the Government of the United States be called upon to interfere with opinions uttered in the public assemblages of a free People, accustomed to the independent expression of their sentiments, resulting in no violation of the laws of their country, or of its duties as a neutral State. Towards the United States, Mexico and Texas stand in the same relation, as independent States at war. Of the character of that war, mankind will form their own opinions, and in the United States, at least, the utterance of those opinions cannot be suppressed.

The second part of Mr. de Bocanegra's complaint is thus stated: "No sooner does the Mexican Government, in the exercise of its rights, which it cannot and does not desire to renounce, prepare means to recover a possession usurped from it, than the whole population of the United

States, especially in the southern States, is in commotion; and, in the most public manner, a large portion of them is directed upon Texas."

And how does Mr. de Bocanegra suppose that the Government of the U. States can prevent, or is bound to undertake to prevent, the people from thus going to Texas? This is emigration; the same emigration, though not under the same circumstances, which Mexico invited to Texas before the revolution. These persons, so far as is known to the Government of the United States, repair to Texas not as citizens of the United States, but as ceasing to be such citizens, and as changing at the same time their allegiance and their domicil. Should they return after having entered into the service of a foreign State, still claiming to be citizens of the United States, it will be for the authorities of the United States Government to determine how far they have violated the municipal laws of the country, and what penalties they have incurred. The Government of the United States does not maintain, and never has maintained, the doctrine of the perpetuity of natural allegiance. And surely Mexico maintains no such doctrine; because her actually existing Government, like that of the United States, is founded in the principle that men may throw off the obligation of that allegiance to which they are born.

The Government of the United States, from its origin, has maintained legal provisions for the naturalization of such subjects of foreign States as may choose to come hither and make their home in the country, and, renouncing their former allegiance, and complying with certain stated requisitions, to take upon themselves the character of citizens of this Government. Mexico herself has laws granting equal facilities to the naturalization of foreigners.

On the other hand, the United States have not passed any law restraining their own citizens, native or naturalized, from leaving the country and forming political relations elsewhere. Nor do other Governments, in modern times, attempt any such thing. It is true that there are Governments which assert the principle of perpetual allegiance; yet, even in cases where this is not rather a matter of theory than practice, the duties of this supposed continuing allegiance are left to be demanded of the subject himself, when within the reach of the power of his former Government, and as exigencies may arise, and are not attempted to be enforced by the imposition of previous restraint preventing men from leaving their country.

Upon this subject of the emigration of individuals from neutral to belligerent States, in regard to which Mr. de Bocanegra appears so indignant, we must be allowed to bring Mexico into her own presence, to compare her with herself, and respectfully invite her to judge the matter by her own principles and her own conduct. In her great struggle against Spain for her own independence, did she not open her arms wide to receive all who would come to her from any part of the world? And did not multitudes flock to her new raised standard of liberty from the United States, from England, Ireland, France, and Italy, many of whom distinguished themselves in her service, both by sea and land? She does not appear to have supposed that the Governments of these persons, thus coming to unite their fate with hers, were, by allowing the emigration,

even pending a civil war, furnishing just cause of offence to Spain. Even in her military operations against Texas, Mexico employed many foreign emigrants; and it may be thought remarkable, that in those very operations, not long before the battle of San Jacinto, a native citizen of the United States held high command in her service, and performed feats of no mean significance in Texas. Of that toleration, therefore, as she calls it, and which she now so warmly denounces, Mexico, in that hour of her emergency, embraced the benefits eagerly, and to the full extent of her power. May we not ask, then, how she can reconcile her present complaints with her own practice, as well as how she accounts for so long and unbroken a silence upon a subject on which her remonstrance is now so loud?

Spain chose to regard Mexico only in the light of a rebellious province for near twenty years after she had asserted her own independence. Does Mexico now admit that, for all that period, notwithstanding her practical emancipation from Spanish power, it was unlawful for the subjects and citizens of other Governments to carry on with her the ordinary business of commerce, or to accept her tempting offers to emigrants? Certainly such is not her opinion.

Might it not be asked, then, even if the United States had not already and long ago acknowledged the independence of Texas, how long they should be expected to wait for the accomplishment of the object now existing only in purpose and intention of the re-subjugation of that territory by Mexico?

How long, let it be asked, in the judgment of Mexico herself, is the fact of actual independence to be held of no avail against an avowed purpose of future reconquest?

Mr. de Bocanegra is pleased to say, that if war actually existed between the two countries, proceedings more hostile on the part of the United States could not have taken place than have taken place, nor the insurgents of Texas obtained more effectual coöperation than they have obtained.

This opinion, however hazardous to the discernment and just estimate of things of those who avow it, is yet abstract and theoretical, and so far harmless.

The efficiency of American hostility to Mexico has never been tried; the Government has no desire to try it. It would not disturb the peace for the sake of showing how erroneously Mr. de Bocanegra has reasoned; while, on the other hand, it trusts that a just hope may be entertained that Mexico will not inconsiderately and needlessly hasten into an experiment by which the truth or fallacy of his sentiments may be brought to an actual ascertainment.

Mr. de Bocanegra declares, in conclusion, that his Government finds itself under the necessity of protesting solemnly against the aggressions which the citizens of the United States are reiterating upon the Mexican territory; and of declaring, in a positive manner, that it will consider as a violation of the treaty of amity the toleration of that course of conduct, which, he alleges, inflicts on the Mexican Republic the injuries and inconveniences of war. The President exceedingly regrets both the

sentiment and the manner of this declaration. But it can admit but of one answer. The Mexican Government appears to require that which could not be granted, in whatever language or whatever tone requested. The Government of the United States is a Government of law.

The Chief Executive Magistrate, as well as functionaries in every other department, is restrained and guided by the Constitution and the law of the land. Neither the Constitution nor the law of the land, nor principles known to the usages of modern States, authorizes him to interdict lawful trade between the United States and Texas; or to prevent, or attempt to prevent, individuals from leaving the United States for Texas, or any other foreign country.

If such individuals enter into the service of Texas, or any other foreign State, the Government of the United States no longer holds over them the shield of its protection. They must stand or fall in their newly assumed character, and according to the fortunes which may betide it. But the Government of the United States cannot be called upon to prevent their emigration; and it must be added, that the Constitution, public treaties, and the laws, oblige the President to regard Texas as an independent State, and its territory as no part of the territory of Mexico. Every provision of law, every principle of neutral obligation, will be sedulously enforced in relation to Mexico, as in relation to other Powers, and to the same extent and with the same integrity of purpose. All this belongs to the constitutional power and duty of the Government, and it will all be fulfilled. But the continuance of amity with Mexico cannot be purchased at any higher rate. If the peace of the two countries is to be disturbed, the responsibility will devolve on Mexico. She must be answerable for consequences. The United States, let it be again repeated, desire peace. It would be with infinite pain that they should find themselves in hostile relations with any of the new Governments on this continent. But their Government is regulated, limited, full of the spirit of liberty, but surrounded, nevertheless, with just restraints; and, greatly and fervently as it desires peace with all States, and especially with its more immediate neighbors, yet no fear of a different state of things can be allowed to interrupt its course of equal and exact justice to all nations, nor to jostle it out of the constitutional orbit in which it revolves.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

DANIEL WEBSTER.

To Waddy Thompson, Esq. &c.

[TRANSLATION.]

National Palace, Mexico, May 31, 1842.

The undersigned, Minister of Foreign Relations and Government of the Mexican Republic, had the honor a few days since to address the Hon. Secretary of State of the United States, in order to protest formally against the Government of that Republic, in the name of his Excellency the Provisional President, on account of the continual hostilities and ag-

gressions of citizens of the United States against the Mexican territory. And although he might hope for a flattering result in the change of proceedings, he finds himself, in consequence of a continuation of those proceedings, under the necessity of again calling the attention of the Secretary of State to the undeniable toleration which has been and is still afforded to the enemies of a nation sincerely friendly, and bound by the solemn compacts of a treaty which unites the two Republics.

In that note the undersigned, after setting before the Secretary the prudence with which the Government of Mexico has sought, ever since the commencement of the revolution of Texas, to conduct all its relations with the United States, so as to avoid a rupture between two nations, which, from their importance, and other serious considerations, seemed destined to fix the policy and the lot of the vast and rich continent of America, he flattered himself with the idea that the Cabinet of Washington would not protect, either openly or secretly, or in any way, the scandalous usurpation of an acknowledged portion of the national territory. He, however, regrets that he must judge from facts, open to all the world, that the very Cabinet of the United States, and the subaltern and local authorities, do observe a conduct openly at variance with the most sacred principles of the law of nations, and the solemn compacts of amity existing between the two nations; sufficient proof being afforded by the consent given to the formation of the most tumultuous public assemblies in various parts of the United States themselves, to the equipment of armaments, and the embarkation of volunteers in large bodies, and to the preparation and disposal of every thing calculated to contribute to aid the Texians, and to the invasion of a neighboring and friendly Republic.

The Mexican Government cannot understand such conduct; and being itself frank in its proceedings, and animated at the same time by a sincere desire that the relations now existing between this Republic and the United States should not suffer the slightest alteration, it considers itself bound in duty to repeat with every formality its former protest against such toleration; the continuance of which it will regard as a positive act of hostility against this Republic, which will regulate the conduct to be observed by it agreeably to the dictates of justice and to the interests and dignity of the nation.

The undersigned hopes that the Secretary will be pleased to reply with that promptness which the importance of the subject requires; and he avails himself with pleasure of this opportunity to repeat to that gentleman the assurance of his most distinguished consideration, with which he remains, &c.

J. MARIA DE BOCANEGRA.

*To the Hon. Daniel Webster,
Secretary of State of the United States of America.*

Mr. Webster to Mr. Thompson.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, July 13, 1842. }

SIR : After writing to you on the 8th instant, I received, through the same channel as the former, Mr. de Bocanegra's second letter, and at the same time your despatch of the 6th of June, and your private letter of the 21st. This last letter of Mr. de Bocanegra was written, as you will see, before it was possible for him to expect an answer to his first, which answer is now forwarded, and shows the groundless nature of the complaints of Mexico. The letter itself is highly exceptionable and offensive.

It imputes violations of honor and good faith to the Government of the United States not only in the most unjust, but in the most indecorous manner. You have not spoken of it in terms too strong in your circular to the members of the diplomatic corps.

On the receipt of this, you will write a note to Mr. de Bocanegra, in which you will say : That the Secretary of State of the United States, on the 9th of July, received his letter of the 31st of May ; that the President of the United States considers the language and tone of that letter derogatory to the character of the United States, and highly offensive, as it imputes to their Government a direct breach of faith ; and that he directs that no other answer be given to it than the declaration that the conduct of the Government of the United States, in regard to the war between Mexico and Texas, having been always hitherto governed by a strict and impartial regard to its neutral obligations, will not be changed or altered in any respect or in any degree. If for this the Government of Mexico shall see fit to change the relations at present existing between the two countries, the responsibility remains with herself.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

DANIEL WEBSTER.

To Waddy Thompson, Esq.

*Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the
United States, Mexico.*

THE NEW CUSTOM-HOUSE, NEW YORK.

J. FRAZEE, ARCHITECT AND SUPERINTENDENT.

THE order of this edifice, upon its exterior, is of the purest style of Grecian Doric, being after the example of the Parthenon at Athens ; and its general dimensions, compared with those of that ancient temple, are as eleven to twelve, the Parthenon being the largest. The size of the Custom-House, in plan, is 90 feet on each front, and 178 feet on the flanks. Its length to the extreme ends of the buttresses is 192 feet.

This edifice, like the Parthenon, is what is termed *octastyle*, having eight columns across the fronts. The colonnades, however, do not re-

turn along the flanks, as in the Greek temple, but a range of deep-projecting *antæ* rises upon the main walls of the *cella*, and supports the great entablature through each flank. The columns at each front are 5 feet 8 inches diameter, at the bottom, and the height is 31 feet. The height of entablature is 13 feet, above which, on the flanks, is set a range of *antefixæ*, making a beautiful crown enrichment upon the eaves, while each separate ornament forms the foot-block, or base, to the saddle courses of the marble roof.

The superstructure rests upon a *stylobate*, which embraces the basement story, thirteen feet high; and below the basement there is a cellar eight feet deep, extending under the whole building, for the storage of wines. The lower, or cellar walls, are eight feet in thickness; those of the basement seven feet; the walls of the superstructure are, on the flanks, five feet thick, those on the fronts three feet. The entrance doors at each front are sixteen feet high, and eight feet wide in the opening. They are trimmed with *antepagmentæ* (architraves) in the simplest form of single fascia, very bold, with an appropriate frieze and cornice over the head-piece. The windows of the first and second stories are five by ten feet in the openings. The attic story is lighted through the *metopes*, which are nearly four feet square. One single sheet of plate-glass, half an inch in thickness, makes both the window and the metope. The glass is set in an iron frame that shuts into a rabbet on the back edge of the *triglyph*, and it being rough ground and otherwise prepared, it has so near a resemblance to the white marble in the other parts of the entablature as completely to deceive the spectator when the windows are closed.

The basement story is divided into ten rooms, allotted severally for the offices of the inspectors, measurers, gaugers, weighers, &c. These rooms, together with the several passages, are finished in a neat and plain style, suitable to that part of the edifice.

On the principal floor there are seven rooms, besides the passages. The great room for the Collector is situated next to the south front, and is entered immediately from the portico on Wall street. In plan, this room is of a cruciform shape, its greatest diameters on the cross being, longitudinally, 85 feet, and transversely, 80 feet. A circle, 60 feet in diameter, formed of 16 columns and 8 *antæ*, of the Corinthian order, rises centrally from the floor of this room, with its beautiful unbroken line of entablature, the whole constructed of pure white marble. Then springs the lofty dome, over-spanning and crowning a rotunda of unparalleled grandeur and beauty. The dome is pierced through its summit with a sky-light 16 feet in diameter, the iron sash for the glass of which is composed in imitation of the stalks and leaves of the sun-dial plant, radiating from a large central rosette, the whole forming a very chaste and appropriate ornament. The ceiling of the dome exhibits a series of *lacunariæ*, (panellings,) of an entirely original form and character. There are 20 of them, of an oblong shape, radiating from a circular band, enriched with rosettes round the base of the sky-light; they extend downward to the entablature. Both ends of these *lacunariæ* are pitched in a graceful pediment form, the upper end outward, the lower end inward and up-

ward. Then, besides an enriched moulding, there is at each end of the lacunar an ornament of a most beautifully classic form and composition, with the lotus, honeysuckle, and other flowers; and these simple flowers, although frugally disposed, impart the spirit of life, grace and beauty to the whole vaulting above.

The columns in this room, with their richly foliated capitals, are after the example of those upon the temple of Jupiter Stator, at Rome. But the design and composition of the entablature are to be accredited to the architect, Mr. Frazee. It is the opinion held by both architects and connoisseurs, who have given the subject attention, that the entablature on the temple of Jupiter Stator is quite an inferior composition, and altogether unworthy to be associated with the elegantly proportioned columns and capitals in that edifice. In Mr. Frazee's entablature the vertical breadth of the *corona* is much enlarged, while its *soffit* is unencumbered with *modillions* or other ornaments, that distract the horizontal line. Each division is greatly simplified, and a purer style of mouldings and enrichment is introduced. Thus the several portions are brought into closer harmony with the columns and capitals; and the whole order now presents that unity of proportion, type and character which leaves, upon the cultivated mind, the impress of a chaste and classic composition.

The height of these columns, including base and capital, is 25 feet; height of entablature 6 feet; diameter of the shaft, at bottom, 2 feet 6 inches; each shaft is of one single stone. From the floor to the crown of the dome, the distance is 54 feet. Outside of the circle are four smaller-sized rooms, in the form of an L; in size, about equal to the square of 18 feet. They are situated nearly equidistant on the circle, one in each recess of the cross. That on the western angle is the private room of the Collector; that on the north is the cashier's office; the one on the east is the office of export and debenture, and that on the south is the liquidating office. All these rooms have a neat plain finish. In the second and third stories, and also in the basement, the same number of rooms, of this irregular shape, are similarly situated upon the great circle, or rotunda. Those four in the second story are entered from the *corridors*, which extend from room to room, along the walls outside of the columns, making a passage of intercommunication in this story entirely round the great room.

The four corridors are constructed entirely of iron; and they project about six feet from the walls. They are sustained by ranges of bracket-beams of a graceful *console* form, inserted firmly into the walls about six feet apart. Between these beams the ceilings are formed into *lacunariae*, of a bold and simple style. On the front of the corridor there runs a *frieze*, the height of one foot, covering the ends of the beams; it has a crown moulding, and is enriched through its whole line with a chaste classic ornament.

But the railing is the most interesting portion of the corridors. On a plinth, eight inches high, along the front of the corridor, are placed a range of caryatic figures, standing erect, about 3 feet apart, and clothed from the waist downward in a vesture of broad and graceful foliage.

Upon their heads lies the hand-rail, while in each hand is held a coil of the rich and beautiful *scroll work*, of foliage and flowers, that fills up the interval between the figures.

The ceilings directly over the four corridors are formed of groined arches, that spring from the top of the Corinthian architrave. To facilitate access to the rooms of the second and third stories, at the south end of the building, there are two spiral stairways ascending to those rooms from the floor of the rotunda.

Having given a general description of the large room, and those apartments situated on its four angles, we will proceed to notice the rooms and passages at the north end of the edifice. About midway of the building, lengthwise, there is a cross or transverse passage, ten and a quarter feet wide. At the ends of this passage, next to the flank walls, are the principal stairways. These stairs are five feet in width, constructed of granite, in the plainest style, with a neat iron hand-rail and ornamental balusters, and they ascend in the same style, with the same breadth of passage, from the basement to the attic.

A longitudinal passage, in breadth fifteen feet, extends from the entrance on Pine street, until it forms a junction with the transverse passage already described. On each side of the longitudinal passage there is a room 30 by 50 feet square. There are eight rooms of this size at the north end of the edifice, two in each story, with the same breadth of passage between them. These rooms, as are also the passages, are all vaulted over with groined arches — those in the rooms spring from *antæ*, at intervals along the walls, and have their bearing through the middle of the room, upon three columns, in the Grecian Doric style, placed opposite the *antæ*. The ceilings are laid off by broad *bands* or *ribs* across the springings and up the groins, thus forming a series of triangular *lacunariæ* of chaste and beautiful character.

There are no panellings in the ceilings of the passages, excepting those in the ribs that span over the passages from the capitals of the *antæ*. But there is on these ceilings, at each apex of the groinings, a centre piece, composed of flowers, scrolls, and foliage. This is an ornament of surpassing elegance. There is also another splendid ornament over each of the eight doors in the large passage from the entrance, and the same ornament is again seen over the cornice in the transverse passage. These ornaments are deserving of particular notice, for their exceeding richness and beauty, both in design and execution. The eight rooms above described, fronting Pine street, are appropriated thus: Those two in the basement are occupied by the inspectors; the two on the principal floor, one the naval office, the other the surveyor's office; in the second story, one the principal auditing office, the other a branch of the naval office; in the attic story, one for auditing clerks, the other a room of records. From the basement floor to the pavement of the principal floor is 13 feet; thence to the floor of second story, 16 feet 4 inches; thence to the attic floor, 15 feet; height of attic story, 13 feet.

We have now given a description of the principal features of this noble edifice, upon its exterior, and of all the apartments within. The observations that are to follow must necessarily extend to a variety of things, general and miscellaneous.

All the door-ways throughout the first and second stories are trimmed with double *facia antepagmentiæ*. Those in the basement and attic have single faced trimmings. They are all executed of white marble, each jamb, or antepagment, being in one stone extending through the entire thickness of the wall, two feet, and to the height of the door, the head-piece running through in like manner; thus completing the whole doorway with an entire architrave round it, in each apartment. In the large room, the architrave mouldings round the doors are enriched; and there is also over each door a bold enriched cornice supported by elegant Grecian consoles. It is proper to state also, that in this room all the walls, to the entire height of the Corinthian entablature, are faced with marble ashler. The trimmings to the windows correspond with those of the doors, in their respective apartments.

We have already mentioned that the beautiful corridors which extend round the large room, are constructed of iron; and as the iron work is an important item in the character and cost of the edifice, it is proper here to notice such other portions of this work as are conspicuous to the public eye.

The permanent doors, the window sashes, together with the different railings, are all constructed of iron; and in design and workmanship, they are, it is believed, unequalled by any known work of the kind in this or any other country. The elegant *stands* that support the mahogany desks and tables in the various offices are also made of iron. The large doors at the two principal entrances are more than three inches in thickness through the rails and stiles. The panels, eight on each side, are deeply sunken, and the mouldings enriched. Nearly all the doors throughout the building are made with sunken panels on both sides, and have a chaste Grecian ornament at each end of the panels. The locks were made by Messrs. Day & Co., which is a sufficient guarantee of the superior make and quality of the article.

All the iron work above mentioned is painted in beautiful bronze green. The color is a deep rich olive, composed of six different paints, and laid on in many different coatings. Each coating has been rubbed down with pumice stone, until a fair and even surface is obtained; then a blending of gold powder, and two coatings of the purest varnish rubbed down, complete the process. The result of a process so difficult and expensive is this: that the doors, so finished, have the appearance of metallic work in real bronze; that rich and beautiful alloy so much admired, and so much used by the ancients in their statues, vases, &c. The wooden fly-doors are also painted in similar style. This work, and much other painting, graining, and labelling, were all done by Mr. John Hodgkin, of this city. All the iron work was furnished by Mr. J. G. Tibbets, and executed at his establishment in Grand street, from designs and drawings furnished by the architect.

This building is thoroughly fire-proof, not having one particle of wood or other combustible material in any part of its construction. All the floors rest upon arches of the most durable kind, being made of hard burnt bricks laid in hydraulic mortar. The mortar was composed of cement from the Rosendale works, N. Y., and sharp sand, in equal parts.

The pavements of all the floors are of blue and white marble, furnished and prepared by Messrs. Hubbard, Fox & Co., from their quarries, at West Stockbridge, Mass. All the cross-walls are two feet thick, and are built of the same kind of materials used in the construction of the arches. The main walls are constructed of marble throughout, though in many instances their interior is faced with brick and plastered. The roof also is constructed entirely of marble, and in a manner so firm, compact, and secure, as to render leakage utterly impossible. It is supported on arches of the strongest masonry, strengthened still more with iron chain bars in every lateral direction. The large tile pieces are 4 feet long, and 3 feet 2 inches broad, 5 inches in thickness at the edges under the saddle, 4 inches across the middle, and 3 inches at the lapping. The lap is 6 inches. The saddle-pieces are 4 feet long, 15 inches broad, and 7 inches thick through at their apex. The marble of the roof and that for the skirting of the attic rooms and passages, was furnished and prepared by Messrs. Butler & Hall, from their quarries at East Chester, N. Y., 20 miles from this city. With this exception, including the marble flooring, all the marble of the superstructure was furnished and prepared by Messrs. Masterton & Smith, from the quarries of Messrs. Kain & Morgan, at East Chester. This marble is of granular formation, and purely white. The marble of the basement walls and buttresses was furnished by Messrs. Matthews, Hall & Co., from the Morrisania quarries, near West Farms, 12 miles from this city, and was worked by Messrs. Rogers & McBride, of this city. This marble is, in every respect, inferior to the East Chester marble.

The separate stones, of which the greater portion of the building is constructed, are of very large dimensions. All the pieces, 28 in number, forming the water table on the flanks, measure nearly 4 feet square and 12 feet 7 inches long; and their average weight is about 20 tons each. Two of the large buttress stones weigh nearly 30 tons each.

The stones of the architrave, in the large Doric entablature, are the same length, and nearly as large square as those in the water-table. The cornice pieces also, are very large stones, both on the horizontal lines and up the pediments. The key-stones at the apex of each pediment, the highest stones in the building, and upon which are formed the *accroters* at the summit, each weigh upward of twelve tons. The five pieces forming each shaft of the columns of the porticos are also large stones, weighing from ten to twelve tons each. Also the blocks, of which the entire range of *antæ* upon each flank is formed, are large stones, weighing from 6 to 8 and 9 tons each. The shafts of the sixteen Corinthian columns in the rotunda of the large room weigh ten tons each. Beneath these, in the basement are the same number of columns, of heavy proportions, and nearly the same weight.

The execution of the marble-work of the superstructure is highly creditable to the contractors who furnished it. Equally so is the work of placing and securing such immense masses of stone in the structure, to those to whose charge the rearing up of this splendid edifice has been committed; and among those who, under the architect and superintendent, filled important stations on the work, we take pleasure in naming Mr.

Edward Cook, the master-mason, Mr. John Getchell, principal stone-setter, Messrs. Cole & Barnes, plasterers and stucco-men, Mr. H. Bruhn, master-carpenter. Nor must we forget Mr. Butcher, the boss rigger, for his industry, care and skill, at whose hoarse commands the ropes, rocks, rugged men and machinery were all made to move; and who, during a seven years' service, never permitted one solitary stone to fall from its place, nor a human limb to be broken!

All the ornaments in stucco were executed by Mr. H. Kneeland, after the original designs of the architect, Mr. Frazee. The four lions' heads upon the eaves were executed by Mr. George Mortimer, from a model made by Mr. Frazee, who also gave the designs for all the furniture throughout the several apartments of the building. The mahogany furniture was all furnished by Mr. Abm. Storm, cabinet-maker, Broadway, near Grand street.

There is no building, perhaps, of modern time, so well built as this; none that is throughout constructed of such imperishable materials and workmanship. Every point of lateral thrust from the arches, or other pressure, is guarded and held secure by the strong arm of iron. Chainings, made of bars four inches broad and one inch in thickness, and of the best quality of wrought iron, extend across the building in every direction, at each series of the vaulting over the rooms and passages, thus binding and securing those heavy masses of stone and masonry, and holding them together in lasting unity, more firm and enduring than if the whole edifice were cut out of a single stone.

The blocks of marble, composing the columns of the porticos, are so closely united in the column, that the joints can scarcely be seen; and were the several pieces of a uniform color, the columns would certainly have the appearance of being cut out of a single stone each. The plan of grinding one block upon another, as they were successively set in the column, until the stones made a perfect contact at the joint, entirely round the column, is an invention of Mr. Frazee; no work of this kind had hitherto been known to exist in architectural structure. We were pleased to see Mr. Frazee's method subsequently pursued with success, in the setting of the columns in the large room of the Merchants' Exchange.

The building of the Custom House was commenced in May, 1834, and the edifice finished, with its furniture complete, in May, 1842.

It has cost	\$960,000 00
Cost of the furniture,	25,000 00
	<hr/>
	\$985,000 00

[*New York Commercial Advertiser.*]

THE QUEEN'S PRISON.

A BRIEF notice of the Act of Parliament relating to the Queen's Prison, which came into operation on Tuesday, appeared in the Times on Friday last. It appears that all the prisoners now residing in the Fleet and Marshalsea prisons, who shall not speedily obtain their discharge, must, within a specified time, be removed to the Queen's Prison. Some extraordinary removals will take place from the Fleet prison of persons who have been confined a very long period. One man, named Jeremiah Board, has been an inmate twenty-six years, and in whose case considerable property has been obtained by the Insolvent Debtors' Court. The present act relating to insolvent debtors, by the operation of the compulsory clause, has been productive of considerable benefit, and persons who had previously enjoyed their property in the rules or within the walls have found that the law was in a measure enabled to reach them. Already has the "din of preparation" towards the alterations in the Queen's Prison been heard, and the several portions in the prison to distinguish the "classes" expected to be shortly made. A marked distinction will take place in the prisoners who have undergone a rehearing and those who have not, especially among those who have been remanded by the Insolvent Debtors' Court, and parties who refuse to file their schedules under the compulsory clause. These two sets will be confined in the first class. By the recent act the Secretary of State is ordered to prepare rules for the government of the prison, which are to be laid before Parliament, and in which some strict orders respecting the supply of food are expected to be detailed, as would seem by a clause in the bill against "extravagance, and for the discipline of the prison." The future appointment of the keeper of the prison will be in the gift of the Secretary of State, and not, as at present, in the Lord Chief Justice of the Court of Queen's Bench. The salary in future is fixed at £800. The act likewise abolishes the office of coroner for the prison, and directs that the inquests shall be held within the prison by the coroner for the city of London and borough of Southwark. There are 225 rooms in the Queen's Prison, where there are at present about 130 persons, a few of whom have since Tuesday last taken up their quarters, rather than be removed under the warrant of Lord Denman. There are about 120 persons in the Fleet, with about 50 in the Marshalsea. As many as 800 persons have resided in the Queen's prison, making a striking contrast to the number now confined. In the Fleet considerable numbers have been confined, but it now presents a desolate aspect, as also the Marshalsea, which has stood a number of years. These two prisons will be shortly closed, and will vest in the Commissioners of Woods and Forests. It is expected that the Fleet prison will be pulled down. At the present period there are upwards of 400 confined in Whitecross-street prison, besides a number discharged on bail by the Insolvent Debtors' Court. It is said to be in contemplation to abolish the prison in Southwark called "The Borough Compter," or "Clink," in Tooley-street, which is a prison for the Borough Court of Record of the Borough of Southwark, prisoners taken

under executions from the Court of Requests, and prisoners for criminal offences within that jurisdiction, the latter of whom is now extremely small, in consequence of the sittings of Aldermen at the town-hall having been discontinued, and the business transferred to the magistrates at Union-hall. The subject is now before the Court of Common Council, and it is proposed to remove the debtors to Whitecross-street Prison. — *London Times*.

THE AXLES OF LOCOMOTIVE ENGINES.

THE accident on the Versailles Railway by the breaking of the front axle of a four-wheeled locomotive engine having given rise to some difference of opinion as to what would be the effect of a broken front axle of the four-wheeled engines used in this country on the London and Birmingham, the Eastern Counties, the Midland Counties, the North Union, and other railways using this description of engine, the London and Birmingham Railway Company, with their usual liberality, undertook some experiments for this purpose. The object was to ascertain the effect of a broken fore-axle, and whether any thing could be suggested from these effects which could increase the public safety. As no front-axle of this kind of engine had ever been known to break, it was determined to cut one, so as to insure its breaking. Accordingly, a few days since, the fore-axle of one of the ordinary passenger-engines was cut nearly through its entire thickness, at a short distance from one of the bearings, (as being the most severe test,) and was started from Wolverton without any load. The engine ran eight miles, and it was then examined, and the axle found to be broken quite in two. The engine was then crossed over to the other line of rails, (passing through the points,) and returned back to Wolverton, without any accident whatever. The next day the engine, precisely in the same state in which it had been left on the preceding day, was started from Wolverton with a train of six loaded luggage-trucks attached, weighing about 35 tons, and it proceeded, without stopping, to Watford, a distance of 34 miles. At this time the speed was about 25 miles an hour, when one of the fore wheels slipped inside the rails, but the engine exhibited no signs of breaking down. The wheel was replaced on the rail, and the engine again started and ran 12 miles further, when one of the fore-wheels and both the driving-wheels slipped off the rails, and the engine ran 200 yards over the cross-sleepers, but without the slightest indication of breaking down. The wheels were again replaced on the rails, and the engine then ran safely to Camden-town, a distance of 52 miles, which it accomplished in three hours and a half, including all the time lost in twice replacing the wheels on the rails. The total distance run by the engine after the axle was broken quite through was upwards of 60 miles; and the experiment is considered to afford the most satisfactory evidence of the perfect safety of the four-wheeled engines when made with inside bearings. The fracture of the

crank axle of these engines has several times been proved to be perfectly harmless; as instances have occurred of four-wheeled engines running seven miles with a broken crank-axle; while it is said that six-wheeled engines are immediately disabled under similar circumstances. — *Lond. Morn. Chron.*

NEW GUNS IN WAR STEAMERS.

THE late experiments at Woolwich, and the forthcoming ones at Deal, for the purpose of testing the superiority of the new guns, excite just now considerable interest throughout the profession. No greater proof of this can be afforded than the numerous inquiries we have received, not only from officers who have recently served, but those who have been on half-pay a considerable time, and are, probably, no longer fit for active service. Some of these latter, who have not possessed the opportunities now available for acquiring proficiency in naval gunnery, express their surprise at the great weight of the 68-pounders on board the Geyser; and are anxious to know what benefit is expected to compensate for this inconvenience. The reason is evident: the intention being to produce a great range, it cannot be accomplished without large charges of powder; hence the necessity of casting the gun larger than was the former practice. The old 68-pounder carronade, or "Smasher," (as it was originally called,) weighed only about 36 cwt.; the full charge was 5 lbs. 12 oz.; and the range (greatest) about 1,300 yards; but Col. Dundas's modern gun of that calibre, owing to its weight and form, is capable of bearing a charge of 20 lbs. of powder, and to range a shot upwards of 4,000 yards, being considerably more than any piece of artillery we hitherto possessed, while Mr. Monk's gun of 97 cwt., throwing a shot of 56 lbs. is little, if any, inferior in this respect to the former, which weighs 113 cwt. The principal advantage of the Dundas gun is, its being adapted to an existing calibre; whereas Mr. Monk's shot of 56 lbs. is a deviation from any calibre we already possess. For steam-vessels, guns possessing the longest range are the most desirable, because not only are they calculated to batter a town from a distance beyond the reach of ordinary cannon, but, also, because the shot has greater velocity, and, consequently, the power of penetrating deeper at low elevations, and thus producing more certain and destructive effect than when it is necessary to elevate greatly in order to reach the object. — *Naval and Military Gazette.*

GALVANIC GILDING.

THE new method of gilding, by means of galvanism, appears to have excited considerable interest in Germany. There is, in the *Allgemeine*

Zeitung of the 6th, an article which states, that Professor Bottger, of Frankfort, has, after long perseverance in experiments, brought the process to the highest degree of perfection. He has discovered a salt, the application of which to the material, it is said, overcomes all the difficulties hitherto encountered in gilding. All kinds of metals, on being immersed in the solution of this salt, comes out brilliantly gilded, without suffering any of those black marks or stains, to which they would be liable in the common process.

CHRONOLOGY.

FOREIGN.

CHINA. The British overland mails bring interesting intelligence from China, where the temporary respite from hostilities had given way to active operations. Sir Henry Pottinger's circular gives the details of these operations, which, therefore, we copy in full:

CIRCULAR. — *To Her Britannic Majesty's Subjects in China.* Her Britannic Majesty's Plenipotentiary in China has great pleasure in announcing to Her Majesty's subjects, the complete repulse of two bodies of Chinese troops, which attacked the British positions at Ningpo and Chinhae at daylight on the morning of the 10th of last month.

During the whole of February, almost daily intelligence reached the headquarters of her Majesty's forces, showing that the Chinese high authorities contemplated some active operations, but they were from time to time deferred on such frivolous pretences, that it appeared their Excellencies the Naval and Military Commanders-in-Chief had gone over to Chusan to make arrangements at that place, preparatory to a forward movement of a portion, at least, of her Majesty's combined forces.

In this state matters remained until the date and hour above-mentioned, when a considerable body of Chinese, estimated at from 10,000 to 12,000 men, advanced upon the south and west gates of Ningpo, got over the walls, and penetrated to the

market-place in the centre of the city, where they were met by our troops, and instantly driven back with great loss; in fact it would seem, that the moment the Chinese troops found themselves so warmly received, their sole object was to get out of the city as fast as possible; and in their retreat to the south gate, the field guns drawn by ponies came up, and opened on a dense mass with grape and canister, at a distance of less than 100 yards. Above 250 dead bodies were found inside the walls, and when the accounts came away, her Majesty's 49th Regiment had not returned from the pursuit of the discomfited and flying enemy.

While these operations were progressing on shore, a number of fire-boats (sam-pans), lashed together with chains, were floated down the river, and were towed into the mud by the boats of the *Sesostris* steamer. In the mean time a gun was brought down a lane in the eastern suburb (across the river); and as the inhabitants had been previously warned that any such attempt would bring chastisement upon them, her Majesty's ship *Modeste* opened her guns, and did great execution in that quarter.

The attack on Chinhae was much more feeble. The enemy advanced to the north gate, where they were driven off by the guard, and followed by one company (afterwards reinforced by three others) of her Majesty's 55th Regiment, who killed 30 men and two mandarins in the pursuit.

Simultaneously with the attack on the city of Chinhae, fire sampans, chained together, were setadrift to burn the shipping at their anchorage; but they all went ashore above the ships of war and merchant vessels, and did no sort of harm.

Shortly before these repulses occurred, the Nemesis steamer was sent from Chusan to reconnoitre the island of Taisam, where it was understood Chinese troops were collecting with the purpose of attacking her Majesty's forces at Tinghae. The steamer sent her boats into a creek, where they were fired on, and, in consequence, Commander Collinson and Lieutenant Hall landed the steamer's company, when the Chinese fled, with the loss of about thirty killed and a number wounded. The steamer's boats then set fire to a number of junks, which had also fired on her, and returned to Chinhae.

Their Excellencies the Naval and Military Commander-in-Chief had gone back to Ningpo, and proposed to follow up the repulses the enemy had experienced by active measures.

It affords her Majesty's Plenipotentiary the highest satisfaction to close this circular by stating that, in these attempts of the enemy, her Majesty's combined forces had not lost a man.

The latest intelligence from the headquarters of the Chinese army south of the Hangchow River, speak of the troops as being in almost a state of insubordination, and in want of supplies, &c.

The Emperor had ordered that the provinces which are the seat of war should bear the expenses of it; and as the inhabitants seemed resolved to make no further sacrifices, there appears every probability of the army dissolving itself, and becoming totally disorganized.

God save the Queen.

HENRY POTTINGER,
her Majesty's Plenipotentiary.

Dated at Macao, on the 1st day of April, 1842.

LONDON, June 5. Mr. Lister, the British Registrar-General of births, deaths, and marriages, whose reports we have frequently mentioned in the Chronicle, died at the mansion of his relative, the Earl of Morley. Mr. Lister was the author of *Granby*, a novel, and several other literary works.

LONDON, June 17. John Francis, the author of the attempt on the life of the Queen, [see p. 280,] had his trial in the Centre Criminal Court, on the charge of

high treason. He was found guilty on the second and third counts of the indictment, which charged him with discharging a pistol, with intention to assassinate the Queen, loaded with gunpowder and some other destructive substance, and with discharging a certain loaded pistol. The facts were proved as they have been heretofore stated. The verdict, "guilty," having been returned by the foreman, it was recorded, and the Chief-Justice proceeded to sentence the prisoner. After some appropriate remarks on the enormity of the crime, he delivered the sentence thus: "That you, John Francis, be taken hence to the place from whence you came, and that you be drawn from thence on a hurdle to the place of execution, and there be hanged by the neck until you are dead; that your head be then severed from your body, and your body divided into four quarters, to be disposed of as her Majesty may think fit."

The prisoner fainted away when the sentence was pronounced.

On the 2d of July, by order of the Queen, the sentence was commuted to transportation for life to the penal settlement of Tasmania. There was throughout some doubt whether the pistol was loaded with ball.

LONDON, July 3. A second attempt was made on the Queen's life, as she returned from her drive. A young man named Bean snapped a pistol at her, which, however, did not go off. He was soon after arrested and committed for trial. The pistol was only loaded with a piece of tobacco pipe.

STEAM EXPLOSION ON THE ST. LAWRENCE, June 9. The boiler of steamer Shamrock exploded as she was on her passage up from Montreal. She left the canal basin, at Montreal, on Friday evening, and the locks at Lachine early on Saturday morning, having in tow three barges, one empty and one partially laden. She carried no cargo besides the luggage of passengers, whose number, we understand, amounted to 120 souls. About 11 o'clock, when the steamer had proceeded only about five miles from Lachine, her boiler exploded, scattering death and destruction. So sudden were its effects, that in less than five minutes, sixty-two human beings were precipitated into eternity. The passengers were English, Irish, and Scotch emigrants, but principally English.

The explosion carried away the decks, and opened the sides, so that the vessel

immediately went down. The loss fell principally upon the English, who were in the bows; the three women and two men in the cabin perished, and all who were between decks, with the exception of three Irishmen.

The Captain dropped two barges which he had in tow, and made all haste to carry succor. When the Dolphin reached the scene of the disaster, the sight was appalling, the unfortunate steamer had disappeared, and the surface of the water was covered with living and dead bodies, the living clinging to fragments of the wreck, and to the sides of two barges which remained unimpaired. By the humane and laudable exertions of the master and crew of the Dolphin, fifty-eight persons of different ages and sexes were picked up. Of these, about thirty are more or less injured, and about thirty, principally Irish, escaped unhurt.

PARIS, June 11. The session of the Chamber of Deputies closed. On the 13th, the royal ordinance dissolving the Chamber was published. The convocation of the Electoral Colleges for the new election is fixed for July 9, and the meeting of the new Chamber for the 3d of August.

SPAIN. The resignation of M. Surra y Rull, the Spanish Minister of Finance, took place May 25; it was followed on the next day by that of M. Camba, Minister of Marine, and both resignations were accepted by the Regent. The resignation was officially announced on the 27th, and there was a discussion on the subject in the Cortes. On the 28th, after a long debate, a vote of deliberate censure upon the Ministry was passed, by a majority of 7, in a full house of 163 members. The Ministers in consequence gave in their resignations. The Regent thereupon named General Rodil to be Minister of War, with authority to form a Ministry of which he should be the president. At the last date no ministry had been formed. General Rodil, at the time of his appointment, was with the army of the North, but he immediately returned to Madrid, where he arrived June 5th, and accepted the appointment, but he found difficulty in forming a ministry, who would hope to carry on the government against the late opposition.

He finally formed the following combination, the strength of which is yet to be proved: Rodil, Minister of War and President of the Council; Almadovar, Foreign Affairs; Zumalcarregui, Justice; Ramon

Calatrava, Finance; Capaz, Marine; Torres Solanes, Interior.

DOMESTIC.

RHODE ISLAND. The dispersion of Dorr's forces, and his flight from the state, [see p. 286,] put an end to the disturbances in Rhode Island. The great body of the suffrage party, being satisfied by the liberal provisions of the enactment of the legislature providing for a new constitutional convention, no further outbreak took place or was apprehended. The trial of the prisoners who were taken at Chepachet after Dorr's flight thence occupied public attention in Providence, but no new details of the history of the various transactions which marked the progress of the insurrection were elicited in their examination.

The Governor raised the reward for the arrest of Dorr to \$5,000, [see p. 285,] and called on the Executive departments of neighboring states to grant leave for his arrest, if within their borders. Governor Cleveland of Connecticut declined complying with this request, as before, on the ground that he had no evidence that Dorr was in that state. He readily granted requisitions for others of the insurgents, where such evidence was produced. Mr. Dorr's flight was so secretly conducted, that thus far his retreat has not transpired.

By direction of the State Government, the 21st of July was celebrated as a day of public Thanksgiving, that the state has been saved from the horrors of anarchy and civil war.

NEW YORK, June 30. The brig Oregon, the second vessel of the South Sea Exploring Expedition, having on board the officers and crew of the Peacock, which was lost at the mouth of Columbia River, arrived from Rio Janeiro.

NEW YORK, July 4. The celebration of the sixty-sixth anniversary of American Independence was conducted throughout the country with as much enthusiasm as ever. In many quarters the "Washingtonian" Temperance Societies celebrated the day in such a manner as to display their attachment to their principles of reform.

In the city of New York the water of the Croton Aqueduct [see p. 263] was admitted into the distributing reservoirs, in the presence of large crowds of people, a national salute being fired at the same time, to express the general satisfaction

at the completion of this magnificent enterprise.

St. Louis, July 3. The steamboat Edna collapsed both flues of her larboard boiler, at a quarter past 4 o'clock, this morning, at the mouth of the Missouri river.

The Edna landed at the mouth about 1 o'clock this morning. The latan was lying there, and the Edna landed on the outside of her, and lay in such a position, that it was difficult for the latan to get away from the shore. However, after a little trouble the latan got under way, and had run three or four hundred yards, when the Edna shoved out from the shore. Her bow could not have been more than one hundred feet from the shore when she collapsed her flues. Her engine had been working, out of gear, full a half hour, and had not been stopped more than ten minutes at the very outside.

The number of wounded was sixty-three, mostly Germans. Some two or three were blown into the river and saved, and it was supposed that two or three others were lost.

The Edna was bound up the Missouri, with full freight. She has been towed in by the Annawan. The wounded were all Germans, with the exception of the second engineer, who was on watch, and one fireman. They are a portion of a party of emigrants. Forty-four of those wounded subsequently died.

LOUISIANA, July 4, 5, and 6. The election for members of the State Government, and for Members of Congress, took place. The election was held for three representatives in Congress, according to the division of districts heretofore existing, but as under the new apportionment law the State is entitled to four members, another election must be held for representatives. The result of the election was the choice of Mr. Mouton, (democratic,) by about 1,200 majority over Mr. Johnson, (whig); a Senate, consisting of 9 whigs and 7 democrats, and a House consisting of 32 whigs and 28 democrats. At the last election a whig Governor and House, and a democratic Senate were chosen.

CHARLESTOWN, (Mass.) July 22. The cap-stone of Bunker-Hill Monument, forming the apex of the pyramid, was laid on Saturday morning, in presence of the Directors of the Monument Association, and a number of citizens. As the clock struck 6, a signal gun was fired by the Charlestown Artillery, and the steam

power for raising the stone was immediately put in motion. In 16 minutes the stone reached the top of the Monument, and at half-past 6 it was laid in cement, and a national salute announced that the Monument was finished.

The corner-stone of the Monument was laid June 17, 1825, in presence of General Lafayette, and a great concourse of citizens, among whom were a large number who had shared in the dangers and honors of the battle of Bunker Hill. The monument has been 17 years in building, during more than half of which period the work was entirely suspended.

The structure, we may now say, is completed, although some considerable work, in finishing off the exterior as well as the interior, yet remains to be done. In the interior cone, about twenty small blocks have been left, to enable the builders to adjust their machinery, which are now to be supplied. The outside of the work will also undergo the finishing operation, as the staging is lowered down from the top, and the upper part of the interior is also to be smooth-hammered, all of which will occupy the principal part of the present season.

WASHINGTON, July 21. **COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.** The annual statement of the Commerce and Navigation of the United States for the year ending September 30, 1841, was laid before the Senate. The following are some of the general results exhibited by the statement:

<i>Value of Imports.</i>	
Merchandise free of duties,	\$66,019,731
paying ad valorem duties,	34,610,642
specific duties,	27,315,804
Total,	\$127,946,177
Imp. in American vessels,	113,221,577
“ in foreign vessels,	14,724,300
<i>Value of Exports.</i>	
American productions,	\$106,382,722
Foreign productions re-exported,	15,469,081
	\$121,851,803
Of the American productions were carried	
In American vessels,	\$82,569,369
In Foreign vessels,	23,813,333
The following are the amounts of some of the principal articles of export:	
Cotton,	\$54,330,341
Tobacco,	12,576,703
Flour,	7,759,646

Manufactures,	3,122,546
Gold and silver coin,	2,746,486
Pork,	2,621,537
Rice,	2,010,107

The number of vessels, their tonnage and crews, which entered the ports of the United States for the year ending the 30th September, 1841:

	Vess.	Tonnage.	Men.	Boys.
American,	7,735	1,631,909	75,445	2,830
Foreign,	4,538	736,444	43,675	453

Total, 12,273 2,368,353 119,120 3,283

The number of vessels which cleared from ports of the United States during the same period was

American,	7,790	1,634,156	79,216	3,043
Foreign,	4,554	736,849	44,061	348

Total, 12,344 2,371,005 123,277 3,391

The tonnage of the United States, for the year ending September 30, 1841, was,

In foreign trade, registered, 945,803 42

Coasting trade, enrolled, 1,076,036 18

Coasting trade, licensed, 31,031 70

Cod fishery, enrolled, 60,556 05

Mackerel, enr'd, 11,321 13

Cod fishery, under 20 tons, 5,995 79

Whale fishery, registered and enrolled, 157,405 17

Of the enrolled and licensed tonnage, there is employed in steam navigation, 174,342 44.

The number of vessels built during the year amounted to 761. Their tonnage, 118,893 71.

The tonnage for the year 1841 is less than that of 1840, by 50,019 79 tons.

Commerce of each State and Territory for the year ending Sept. 30th, 1841.

Imports. Exports.

Maine, \$700,961 \$1,091,565

N. Hampshire, 73,701 10,348

Vermont, 246,789 278,967

Massachusetts, 20,318,003 11,487,313

Rhode Island, 339,592 278,465

Connecticut, 295,969 599,348

New York, 75,713,426 33,139,538

New Jersey, 2,315 19,166

Pennsylvania, 10,346,698 5,152,501

Delaware, 3,276 38,565

Maryland, 6,101,313 4,947,166

D. of Columbia, 77,263 769,331

Virginia, 377,237 5,630,266

N. Carolina, 220,366 383,056

S. Carolina, 1,557,431 8,043,284

Georgia, 449,007 3,696,513

Alabama, 530,819 10,981,271

Mississippi, 10,256,350 34,387,453

Louisiana, 11,316 793,114

Ohio, 7,523

Kentucky, 137,800 86,529

Tennessee, 33,875

Michigan, 145,181 36,629

Misouri, 7,523

Florida, 137,800 86,529

Total, \$127,946,177 \$121,851,502

The following tables, prepared by the Register of the Treasury, exhibit a digested comparative view of the commerce and finances of the United States, for the last fifteen years:

Value of Imports.

Fr. of duty. Paying duty. Total.

\$ \$ \$

1827, 11,855,104 67,628,964 79,484,068

1828, 12,379,176 76,130,648 88,509,824

1829, 11,805,501 62,687,026 74,492,527

1830, 12,746,245 58,130,675 70,876,920

1831, 13,456,625 89,730,499 103,191,124

1832, 14,247,453 86,779,513 101,029,266

1833, 32,447,950 75,670,361 108,118,311

1834, 68,393,160 56,128,152 126,521,332

1835, 77,940,493 71,955,249 149,895,742

1836, 92,056,481 97,923,554 189,980,035

1837, 69,250,031 71,739,186 140,989,217

1838, 60,860,005 52,857,399 113,717,404

1839, 76,401,792 85,690,340 162,042,132

1840, 57,196,204 49,945,315 107,141,519

1841, 66,019,731 61,925,757 127,945,486

Value of Exports.

For. mer'ce. Dom. prod. Total.

1827, 23,403,136 58,021,691 82,324,827

1828, 21,595,017 50,669,669 72,264,686

1829, 16,658,478 55,700,193 72,358,671

1830, 14,367,479 50,462,029 73,849,508

1831, 20,033,526 61,277,057 81,310,583

1832, 24,039,473 63,137,470 87,176,943

1833, 19,822,735 70,317,698 90,140,433

1834, 23,312,811 81,024,162 104,336,973

1835, 20,504,405 101,189,082 121,693,577

1836, 21,746,360 106,916,680 128,663,040

1837, 21,854,962 95,564,414 117,419,376

1838, 12,452,795 96,033,521 108,486,616

1839, 17,494,525 103,533,891 121,028,416

1840, 18,190,312 113,895,634 131,571,956

1841, 15,469,061 106,362,722 121,851,503

	Rec'ts into the Treasury.	Bullion and Specie.	
		Imported.	Exported.
1827,	19,712,263	8,151,130	8,014,860
1828,	23,205,524	7,489,741	8,243,476
1829,	22,681,966	7,403,612	4,924,020
1830,	21,922,391	8,155,964	2,178,773
1831,	24,224,442	7,305,945	9,014,931
1832,	28,465,237	5,907,504	5,656,340
1833,	29,032,509	7,070,368	2,611,701
1834,	16,214,957	17,911,632	2,076,758
1835,	19,391,311	13,131,447	6,477,755
1836,	23,409,941	13,400,881	4,324,336
1837,	11,169,290	10,516,414	5,976,249
1838,	16,158,800	17,747,116	3,508,046
1839,	23,137,925	5,595,176	8,776,743
1840,	13,499,502	8,892,813	8,417,014
1841,	14,487,216	4,975,883	10,034,332

UNITED STATES CONGRESS.

None of the bills of general importance which we mentioned in our last Number as awaiting the action of Congress have yet been matured.

In returning the apportionment bill [see p. 287] to Congress with his signature, President Tyler informed the two Houses that he had filed with the law, in the department of State, a paper stating his reasons for giving it his assent.

This announcement caused some feeling in the House. Mr. J. Q. Adams declared that the course of the President was entirely unprecedented and unjustifiable, and on his motion the message announcing it to the House was referred to a select committee. Of this committee he was, of course, the chairman.

A few days after, this committee presented to the House a resolution, calling on the Secretary of State for the paper containing the President's reasons. The House so amended the resolution, that it should call only for a copy of the document, and in this form it passed. On the 4th of July, accordingly, the Secretary of State transmitted to the House a copy of the document. In it the President stated that he signed the apportionment bill not so much from a decided opinion of the constitutionality of its provisions, as from a desire to concur with Congress in every instance where he was in doubt, where he had not a clear and decided opinion against a measure. He represented that he was in doubt as to that provision of the bill which required the States to adopt the district system in the choice of representatives.

This document, having been placed in the hands of the committee, it reported on the 16th the following resolution:

Resolved, That the House of Representatives consider the act of the President of the United States, notified to them in his message of the 25th ult., namely, his causing to be deposited in the office of the Secretary of State, with the act of Congress, entitled "an act for an apportionment of Representatives among the several States, according to the sixth census," approved by him, an exposition of his reasons for giving to the said act his sanction, as unwarranted by the constitution and laws of the United States, injurious to the public interest, and of evil example for the future, and this House do hereby solemnly protest against the said act of the President, and against its ever being repeated, or adduced as a precedent hereafter.

There has been some debate on this resolution, but the House has taken no action upon it. Mr. Adams said in a speech upon it, that he considered the matter as more important, as two of the States, (New Hampshire and Missouri,) had signified a disinclination to comply with the districting provision of the act.

The veto of the provisional tariff bill, which we mentioned in the last Number of the Chronicle, [see p. 287], excited some surprise at Washington. The opposition of the President to a distribution of the land fund, when duties were more than twenty per cent., was known; but as this bill proposed to suspend the operation of the land act entirely for the month of July, (beyond which month none of its provisions went,) it had not been generally believed that he would veto it, as he did, because it did not suspend it indefinitely. On the formal question, therefore, whether the bill should pass, notwithstanding the objections of the President, a debate arose, which lasted for several days, involving an examination of all the political questions and subjects which had or were supposed to have any bearing on national policy. This debate ended on the 4th of July, when 114 members voted in favor of the bill, and 97 against it. As the constitution requires a vote of two-thirds to pass a bill to which the President objects, the temporary tariff bill was lost on this division.

The House then resumed the consideration of a permanent tariff. Under the operation of the "hour rule," a larger num-

ber, perhaps, of set speeches were made upon it, than were ever made on a general question before a deliberative body. After a long debate on the bill as a whole, in which fifty-five different addresses were made by different members, the House, in Committee of the Whole, proceeded on the 12th of July to vote on amendments proposed to the bill. As the bill went into many details, this process of examining and voting on each article separately, though continued with indefatigable industry, occupied the attention of the committee till the 15th, when it rose and reported the bill as amended to the House. The ultimate fate of the bill, in the form in which it stood, was known at this time. It contained a provision, that nothing imbodyed in it should interfere with the distribution of the proceeds of the land sales, [see Mon. Ch. V. III. 282, V. III. 384,] although many duties higher than twenty per cent. were levied by it. The veto of the temporary Revenue bill, showed that a tariff containing any such clause as this would probably not meet with the Executive approbation. The President had expressed his opinion in regard to a distribution of the proceeds of the land sales in his message of the 25th of March, [see p. 192] where he recommended that they should be pledged in redemption of the national debt. An attempt was made, while the Committee of the Whole were discussing the amendments to the bill, to strike out the obnoxious clause. The committee refused, however, the vote being 70 to 105.

The bill having been reported by the Committee of the Whole, received some further modifications, and finally passed the House on the 16th of the month by a vote of 116 to 112. It was at once sent to the Senate. The Committee of Finance in that body reported certain amendments to it, on the 21st. The Senate had not taken any definite action upon it at our latest dates.

The House, having disposed of the tariff bill, devoted a few days to "territorial business," and then took up the Senate's amendments to the Naval Appropriation Bill, [see p. 288.] The greater part of the Senate's amendments were rejected in Committee of the Whole on the 21st of July, and the bill is therefore still detained by the disagreement of the two branches.

In the Senate, Mr. Benton has again pressed his bill for the repeal of the bank-

rupt act. As a bill similar to this had already been rejected at the present session, a vote of two thirds was required for leave to introduce the subject again. On the motion to grant leave, on the 16th of the month, the Senate was equally divided, and the bill accordingly failed.

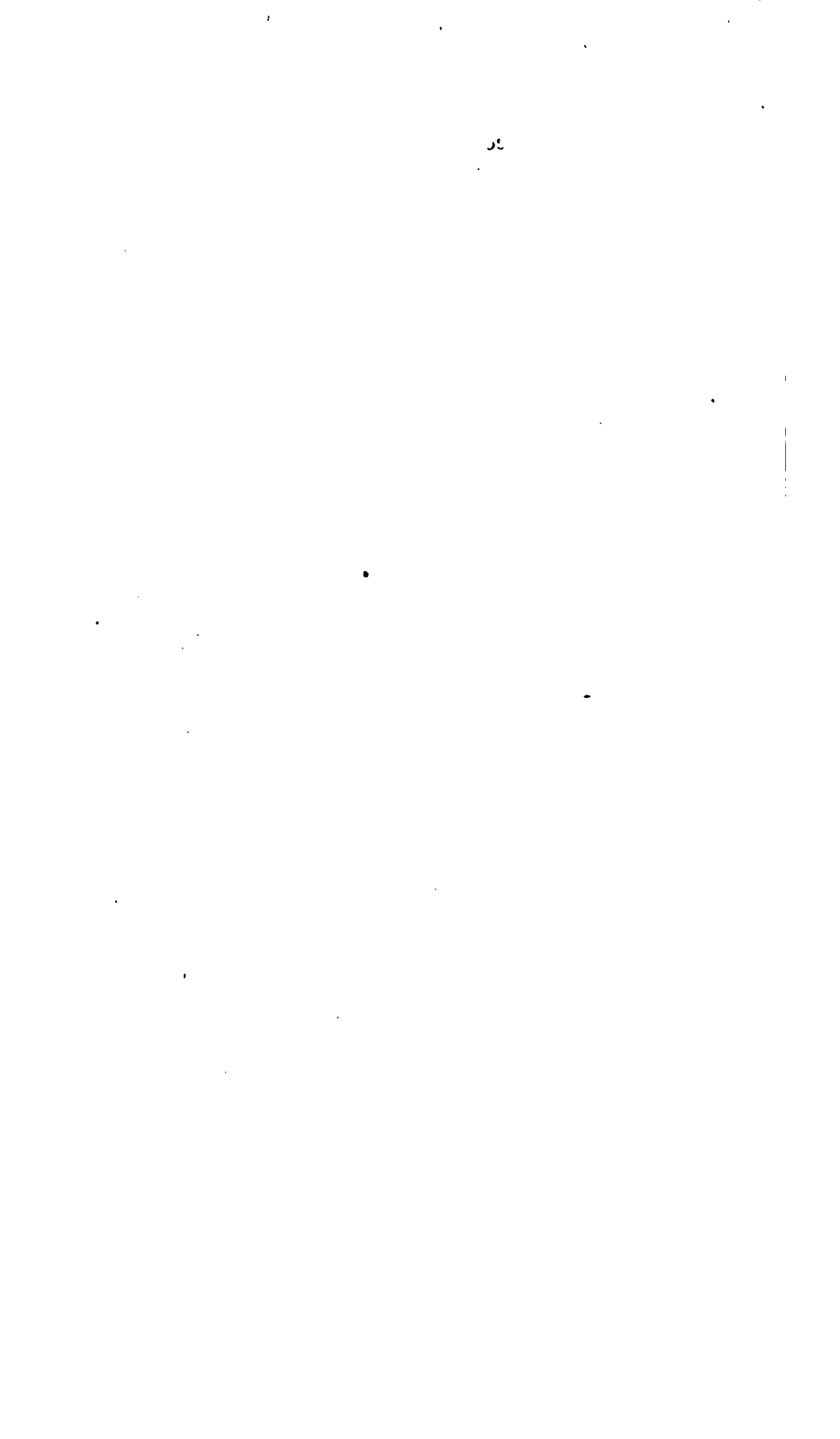
In the Senate, on the 2d of July, a bill allowing to the States of Massachusetts and Maine a considerable part of the balance of their claim, for remuneration for money paid for the services of their militia in defence of the coast in the late war, passed after some debate.

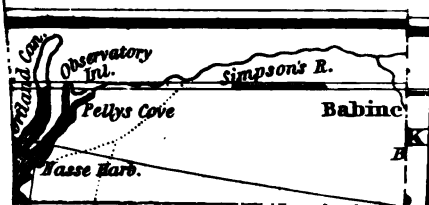
The "remedial justice" bill [see p. 240], which provides for the transfer to the federal courts of cases similar to those of Hogan and McLeod, passed the Senate on the 8th of July. The House has not yet acted on either of these bills.

We have published among the Miscellaneous articles, in another part of this Number of the Chronicle, Mr. Webster's correspondence with Mr. de Bocanegra, the Mexican Secretary of State. These documents were first published after having been called for by votes of each of the two Houses. General approbation was expressed in the Senate by members of all parties at the course taken and the language used by the Secretary.

Mr. W. C. Johnson introduced into the House, in the course of the debate on the tariff bill, a proposition for an assumption of the State debts by the General Government. It met with little favor, however, only seven members voting in its favor. Mr. Botts of Virginia gave notice, after the veto of the provisional tariff bill, that he intended to move the impeachment of President Tyler for misconduct in office. This was a proposal which met the support of no party, and has not yet even come before the House in form. If it is made, there is no probability that it will be entertained.

The death of Hon. Wm. S. Hastings, a member of the House of Representatives from Massachusetts, was announced to the House on the 27th of June. Mr. Hastings had been a member of the House for several years, serving with distinction and credit to himself, to the great satisfaction of his constituents. In the legislature of the State he had previously for many years occupied an important and useful position. He died on the 24th of June at the Virginia Springs, after an illness of several weeks.





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THE MONTHLY CHRONICLE.

AUGUST, 1842.

ARTICLE XII.

THE OREGON TERRITORY.

[With a Map.]

KING JAMES I., in the year 1620, by charter incorporated a company, consisting of forty noblemen and gentlemen, by the name of "the Council established at Plymouth," and granted to them all that part of the continent of North America which extends from the 40th to the 48th parallel of north latitude, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, "throughout all the main land from sea to sea." The Plymouth Council, a few years afterwards, conveyed a portion of the territory thus granted to them to another company, namely, all that part bounded on the north by a line drawn three miles north of the Merrimack river, and on the south by a line three miles south of the Charles River, and of every part thereof; each of these lines running from the Atlantic Ocean on the east, to the South Sea or Pacific Ocean on the west. King Charles I. subsequently, namely, March 4, 1628, by a charter to this last-named company, confirmed this grant of the Council of Plymouth, and conferred in addition upon the grantees certain political privileges. This was the foundation of the Massachusetts Colony. The Council of Plymouth subsequently surrendered their charter, and became extinct. Some years later, in 1662, Charles II. by charter to the colony of Connecticut, besides securing to them political privileges and powers of government, granted to them all the territory bounded on the north by the Massachusetts colony, and on the south by the sea, extending from Narragansett bay on the east to the South Sea or Pacific Ocean on the west. These grants, in their terms, had a much broader

extent towards the west, than the title of the grantor. **They** were besides very early greatly curtailed by the conflicting claim of the colony of New York; the limits of the two colonies were then confined to an insignificant portion of their original dimensions.

It is singular, that after these two colonies had become members of the American Union, with a jurisdiction so far reduced in extent, the Union should have become, by virtue of the treaty of peace by which their independence was acknowledged by Great Britain, by the purchase of the province of Louisiana, and by the discoveries of our mariners on the western shore of the Pacific, possessed of the whole wide tract of territory, through which the original grant to Massachusetts extended.

The claims of Massachusetts and Connecticut to all that portion of the territory embraced in their respective charters beyond the present actual limits of the two states, and within the original boundaries of the United States, east of the Mississippi, were long ago ceded to the United States. It is too late to revive their claims to those portions of the territory which lie west of the Mississippi, and if it were not, it would doubtless be met by the denial of the right of the original grantor. Although the crown of Great Britain claimed the right, by the charters which we have cited, of making grants of land and jurisdiction extending "throughout the main lands from sea to sea," it subsequently, by the treaty of Utrecht, conceded the right of France to a portion of the intervening territory, and still later, by the treaty of Paris, in 1763, agreed to establish the middle of the river Mississippi, from its source to the river Iberville, as the western boundary of the British possessions, and by the same treaty acknowledged the claim of France to the territory west of that river. By the purchase of Louisiana from France, in 1803, the United States acquired a title to the wide regions watered by the western branches of the Mississippi, extending to the Rocky Mountains. Within the territory thus purchased, three States have been already established, and admitted to the American Union, and a fourth will soon be added to the number. The boundaries of this territory on the side of the late Spanish provinces, Texas and Mexico, were settled by treaty with Spain in 1818, and in this settlement the line of boundary was determined, not only as far as the Louisiana purchase extended, but "throughout the main lands," as our original charters express it, to the Pacific Ocean. By this treaty the western and southern boundary of the United States is defined to be by the river Sabine to the 32d degree of north latitude; thence due north to the Red river; thence by the Red river to the 100th degree of west longitude; thence due north to the river Arkansas; thence by said river to its source in the 42d degree of

north latitude; and thence by that parallel of latitude to the Pacific Ocean. The southern limit of the United States west of the Rocky Mountains is thus made to correspond, probably by an accidental coincidence, with the southern line of Massachusetts, had it been extended in conformity with the charter of Charles I., from a point three miles south of the most southerly part of Charles river, in a direction due west to the Pacific Ocean.

The northern boundary of the United States was determined by the treaty of peace of 1783, from the northwest angle of Nova Scotia on the east, to the northwest point of the Lake of the Woods on the west. Subsequent negotiations have been held for the definite adjustment of this line, in conformity with the determination in the treaty. It was further agreed, by the convention of October 20, 1818, between Great Britain and the United States, that the 49th parallel of latitude should be the line of demarcation of their respective territories, from the northwestern point of the Lake of the Woods to the Stony Mountains. From the Stony Mountains to the Pacific Ocean, the line of boundary between the territories of the United States and the British possessions of Hudson's Bay, the line of boundary has never been determined. In the year 1826, the government of the United States, by direction of Mr. Clay, who was then Secretary of State, proposed as its ultimatum, to that of Great Britain, to adopt the same 49th parallel of latitude, as the line between their respective territories, from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean; but this proposition was declined by the latter, which proposed in their turn that "the boundary between the territories of Great Britain and those of the United States west of the Rocky Mountains, should be a line drawn from those mountains westward along the 49th parallel to the nearest head-waters of the Columbia, and thence down the middle of that stream to its termination in the Pacific, the British possessing the country north and west of such line, and the Americans that on the other side." This proposal the United States rejected, and in 1827 Mr. Gallatin, the American minister, was directed to give notice that "the American government did not hold itself bound hereafter, in consequence of any proposal which it had made for a line of separation between the territories of the two nations, beyond the Rocky Mountains, but would consider itself at liberty to contend for the full extent of the claim of the United States." The question of boundary in this quarter thus remains to this day unadjusted.

The question of right in the territory bordering on the river Columbia and its tributaries, has been much discussed. The United States claim that territory by right of prior discovery, and they claim also a right of extension of their territory throughout

the western part of the continent, as far north as the 49th part of latitude, as successors of France and Spain, by virtue of Louisiana and Florida treaties. They maintain, that by virtue of the treaty of Utrecht, concluded between Great Britain and France in 1713, commissioners were appointed, who established the parallel of latitude as the boundary line between the Hudson Bay territories on the north, and the French possessions on the south; and also that by virtue of the treaty of Versailles, of 1763, which recognizes the Mississippi river, from its source, as the western boundary of Louisiana, its claim indefinitely westward to an equal extension towards the north is conceded, on the same principle that the claim of Great Britain for the extension of the Hudson Bay territory towards the south, is conceded to the same latitude.

By the treaty of Florida, concluded February 22, 1819, between the United States and the king of Spain, the latter ceded to the United States all his rights, claims, and pretensions to any territory north of the 42d degree of latitude. Under this stipulation the United States succeed to any claim which can be made: territory on the coast of the Pacific north of that latitude, by virtue of discoveries by Spanish navigators. Some claims have been set up on this ground. As early as the year 1543, two Spanish vessels under the command of Cabrillo, and his successor, Ferrel, made discoveries on the northwest coast, as far north as the 43d and 44th degree of latitude; and in 1603, Viscaïno made a more minute examination of the same coast, without pushing his discoveries any further north. In 1592, Juan de Fuca proceeded as far north as latitude 48, and discovered and sailed through the strait in that latitude, which bear his name. In 1774 and 1775, seven expeditions were undertaken by the Spaniards for extending their dominions north of California. Juan Perez, in 1774, advanced north to the 54th degree, and thence sailed towards the south examining the coast to 49 1-2 degrees, where he discovered a commodious bay, now called Nootka Sound, to which he gave the name of San Lorenzo, at which place he remained some time trading with the natives, it being the first visit made by Europeans on this part of the coast. This was four years before the visit to the same place by Captain Cook, who gave to it the name of King George's Sound. In the following year another expedition fitted out from San Blas, explored the coast as far north as latitude 58, and saw the entrance of the strait discovered by de Fuca. One of the vessels, under command of Heceta, sailed to the south and discovered a promontory called by him San Roque, now called Cape Disappointment, and forming the northern point of the entrance to the Columbia river. The other vessel, under

Bodega and Manrelle, sailed to the north as far as the 57th degree, and landed in a bay which they called Port Remedios, and formally took possession of the country, with religious ceremonies, in the name of their sovereign.

In March, 1778, Captain Cook, in command of a discovery ship fitted out by order of the British Admiralty, arrived on the coast of New Albion, and on the 29th of that month entered the harbor of Nootka Sound, which had been previously visited by Juan Perez in 1774. This name of New Albion had been given to this coast in consequence of the visit of Sir Francis Drake, who visited the Pacific as early as the year 1578, and plundered a number of the Spanish towns; but he proceeded no further north than the 42d or 43d degree of latitude, to which point his visit had been anticipated by Ferrelo, as above mentioned. Captain Cook, having remained a month at Nootka Sound, proceeded to the northward, and having discovered in latitude 61 degrees 30 min. a large river, to which was afterwards given his own name, he sent a party on shore, hoisted the British flag, and took possession of the coast in the king's name. Subsequently, in 1789, Don Esteban Martinez, with two Spanish vessels, proceeded to Nootka Sound for the purpose of making a settlement, and constructed the fort of San Miguel on an island there. Two months afterwards, the English ship *Argonaut*, fitted out by a trading company in England, called the King George's Sound Company, and commanded by Captain Colnet, arrived and took possession of Nootka Sound, for the purpose of monopolizing the trade of the place. A dispute arose as to the right of possession, which ended in Martinez' arresting Colnet, and sending him to San Blas. Martinez was supported by other Spanish vessels; sent from Mexico. This proceeding gave rise to the celebrated Nootka Sound controversy, which came near involving England and Spain in a new war. The dispute was settled by a convention, by which Nootka Sound was restored to the English subjects, who had been dispossessed. The effect of this convention upon the claims of the parties to the adjoining territories, as resulting from the right of first discovery, involves a question which we do not deem it important here to consider. We merely observe, that it has been remarked in reply to the claim which has been rested on this surrender, that the British can claim under it nothing more than the territory actually surrendered. This is described in the order of Count Florida Blanca, dated May 12, 1791, in the following words: "The buildings and districts or parcels of land which were occupied by the subjects of that sovereign in April, 1789, as well in the port of Nootka Sound or of St. Lawrence, as in the other, said to be called Port Cox, and to

be situated about sixteen leagues distant from the former, to the southward; and that such parcels or districts of land, of which the English subjects were dispossessed, be restored to the said officer."

Down to this period no discovery had been made of Columbia river, or the adjoining territories, with the exception of the coast at the northern entrance of the river, as above mentioned. It does not appear that the British navigator had landed on any part of the coast south of Nootka Sound and Port Cox. Captain Cook obtained sight of the coast in latitude 44 deg. 10 min. north March 7, 1778, but was prevented by tempestuous weather from effecting a landing, until he reached Nootka Sound, as above stated. In the year 1787, six merchants of Boston and Salem Joseph Barrell, Samuel Brown, Charles Bulfinch, John Derby, Crowell Hatch, and John M. Pintard, fitted out two vessels, the ship Columbia, Captain John Kendrick, and the sloop Washington, Captain Gray, for a voyage to the northwest coast of America, for the purpose of trading with the natives in furs. They sailed from Boston in October in that year. The Columbia arrived at Nootka Sound on the 16th of September, 1788, and the Washington soon afterwards. Captain Gray, while on the coast sailed some way up the strait of Juan de Fuca. The two masters exchanged vessels, and Captain Gray proceeded with the furs which they had collected to Canton, and thence to Boston leaving Captain Kendrick in the Washington on the coast. Captain Gray was despatched on a second voyage in the Columbia to the northwest coast, and on the 7th of May, 1792, he came in sight of land in latitude 46 deg. 58 min., and anchored in what he called Bulfinch's Harbor. On the 11th of May he entered the large river, and on the 14th sailed about fourteen miles up the river, and remained there until the 21st. To this river he gave the name of his ship, to the north side of the entrance the name of Cape Hancock, and to the south that of Point Adams. This being the first entrance and exploration of the river Columbia by the subjects of a civilized power, it gives to the United States all the right of sovereignty arising from first discovery, unless that right be conceded to Heceta, who had previously discovered the northern cape; and in that case the right of Spain thus acquired devolves on the United States by virtue of the cession from the king of Spain by the article of the Florida treaty above mentioned.

Subsequently, in the same year, Captain Vancouver, a British officer in command of an expedition of discovery, visited Columbia river. He arrived on the northwest coast in April, 1792, where he fell in with the ship Columbia, Captain Gray, by whom

he was informed of the discovery of a river in latitude 46 degrees 10m. In October of the same year, as he relates in his journal, after leaving Nootka Sound, and proceeding south, the serenity of the weather tempted him "to reëxamine the coast of New Albion, and particularly a river and a harbor discovered by Mr. Gray, in the Columbia, between the 46th and 47th degrees of north latitude." Here is a distinct admission by the first British explorer of this part of the coast, of its prior discovery by an American navigator.

Capt. Alexander Mackenzie, a British subject, in the course of his extensive tour through the northern parts of the American continent, arrived in December, 1793, on Pearl river, in latitude 56 degrees 9m. north, and longitude 117 degrees 35m. west, and there passed the winter. In the following May he ascended Pearl river, and on the 17th came in sight of the Rocky Mountains. He pursued his course westward towards the Pacific, and crossed these mountains. Coming to a large river, he descended for several days in a canoe, but finding the navigation difficult, he determined to make an effort to reach the ocean by land. He therefore returned some distance upon the river, which he left July 4, resolving to take the shortest direction to the ocean, which he reached in latitude 52 degrees 23m. on the 22d of the same month. It has been maintained that the river which he thus navigated for some days was a branch of the Columbia; but this seems to be questionable, as none of the sources of that river are found north of latitude 54, and this in a direction south of Pearl river, whereas Mackenzie was pursuing a westerly course with a view of reaching the ocean. This course would not have led him so far south as the Columbia, and had he been upon that river, it is not supposable that he could have travelled from any point of that river between the 4th and the 22d of July. It is, therefore, pretty safely inferred, that Mackenzie did not see the Columbia river. If he did, his discovery was a year later than that of Captain Gray.

In the year 1805, Captains Lewis and Clarke, in charge of an expedition fitted out under the direction of the Government of the United States, and under special instructions from Mr. Jefferson, then President of the United States, ascended the river Missouri, and crossed the Rocky Mountains, for the purpose of exploring the Columbia river, from its source to its mouth in the Pacific Ocean. These travellers crossed the mountains early in October, descended the Lewis river in canoes to its junction with the Columbia, and thence descended this latter river to its mouth, on the Pacific, which they reached on the 14th of November. Having selected a convenient site, they erected houses for their accommodation, together with a fort for their protection during the winter.

In March following they left their winter habitation, on their return to the United States, having first given certificates to several of the chiefs, and posted up notice of their possession of the place. On their return, Capt. Lewis carefully examined Clarke's river, and its principal branches, while Captain Clarke passed on to the Yellow Stone, and descended that river to its junction with the Missouri, where the two parties reunited, and proceeded on their return to Washington.

By the publication of the travels of Lewis and Clarke, the character of this country, and the practicability of reaching it by a land journey, were made known to the American people. The advantage of the fur trade to that country soon attracted attention. The Missouri Fur Company was formed at St. Louis in 1805, by whom several trading posts were established on the Upper Missouri, and one was established beyond the Rocky Mountains on the head waters of the Lewis, the southern branch of the Columbia. This post was continued until 1810. About this period an association was formed at New York, called the Pacific Fur Company, of which Mr. John Jacob Astor was the principal member, for the prosecution of the fur trade, by means of an establishment at the mouth of the Columbia river. A party was despatched from New York in the ship Tonquin, which, after a successful voyage by way of Cape Horn, arrived at the mouth of the Columbia, in March 1811. They established their principal factory on the south bank of the river, and gave it the name of Astoria. This party was soon after joined by another, which proceeded by the inland route from St. Louis. The agents of this company continued to occupy the posts at Astoria, and various minor establishments on the river, for hunting and trading with the natives, until October 16, 1813. The United States being at this time at war with Great Britain, and the managers of the establishment at Astoria having received information that a British force was approaching for the purpose of forcibly dispossessing them, for the preservation of the property, they made a sale of all the establishments, furs, and property to the British Northwest Company. Soon after this transfer of property, in December 1813, the Raccoon, British sloop-of-war, arrived at Astoria, and Captain Black took possession, and substituting the English for the American flag, changed the name of the post to Fort George.

By the treaty of Ghent, which followed in the next year, it was stipulated that all territory, places, and possessions whatsoever, taken by either party from the other during the war, should be "restored without delay." By virtue of this stipulation, the settlement of Fort George on the Columbia river was, on the 6th of October, 1818, in due form, restored to the government of the

United States, through its agent, J. B. Prevost, Esq., and an instrument testifying the fact was signed in triplicate by F. Hickey, Captain of H. B. M. ship Blossom, and J. Keith of the Northwest Company. In the despatch of Earl Bathurst directing the restoration of this post to be made, and also in the instructions of Lord Castlereagh to the British Minister in Washington, to communicate the resolution to restore it, a reservation was made, that the surrender of possession should not be deemed an admission of the absolute and exclusive right of dominion claimed by the United States, but that the question of title should be reserved for adjustment by negotiation. The effect of this surrender, under the reservation, was to place the question of title on the same footing as before the capture.

In the mean time, the British Northwestern Trading Company had established posts within the limits of this territory. As early as 1806, Mr. Simon Frazer, and other persons in the employ of that company, crossed the Rocky Mountains through the gap near the 56th degree of latitude, and established the first British trading post west of those mountains, two degrees farther south, on Frazer's Lake. In 1811, Mr. Thompson, of the same company, with a party of men, on his way down the river, for the purpose of anticipating the Americans at its mouth, built some huts on the northern branch, and opened a trade with the Flathead and Kootanie Indians. He proceeded thence for the purpose of making an establishment at the mouth of the river, but he found himself anticipated in this design by the occupation of the American post at Astoria.

We do not propose to go into a discussion of the question of title to this territory, or of the proper boundary of the claims of the two countries. It would occupy more room than we could spare for it in this publication. We have already stated the principal facts in the history of the discovery and occupation of the territory, on which the decision of the question must depend. It remains to give a brief geographical description of the territory claimed by the government of the United States.

The boundaries of the Columbia Territory are distinctly defined. On the north, they are indeed yet undetermined; on the east, it is bounded by the Rocky Mountains, on the south by the parallel of 42, and on the west by the Pacific. It will be observed, therefore, that almost the whole of the territory is farther north than Boston. The space included within the boundaries claimed by the United States, is about 600 miles, to give the average width, from east to west, and about 750 from north to south; being somewhat larger than the whole territory occupied by the middle states.

It will be seen by the map which accompanies this article, that this whole territory is watered by the Columbia river; this river and its branches is indeed the only river within its boundaries of commercial importance, and the only one which affords a harbor for shipping. With its branches it traverses the whole extent of the country in every direction. The northern branch retains the name of "Columbia," though not apparently the largest stream. It rises in the Rocky Mountains, as far north as the parallel of 46° and flows nearly south for more than 300 miles, where having received the waters of Flathead or Clarke river, which also rises in the Rocky Mountains, about 300 miles to the southeast of the junction, it turns to the west. Near this junction of the Columbia and Clarke is Fort Colville. From this place the united river flows westerly 100 miles, and then resume a southerly course. At this bend is Fort Okenagan. From Fort Okenagan the southerly course continues 170 miles, where the stream again turns to the west, and after a course in that direction for about 330 miles discharges itself into the Pacific Ocean in latitude 46 deg. 17'. At the beginning of this last western course is Fort Nezperce, and near that point, Lewis river, the great southern branch of the Columbia, joins it. Lewis river, like most of the other tributaries, rises in the Rocky Mountains. Its source is near the parallel of 46°, and it flows thence in a northwestern course till it joins the Columbia at the point we have named.

The value of the extent of country traversed in this manner by the several waters which make up this great river, must depend in great measure on the advantages of the harbor for shipping at its mouth. Different authorities vary somewhat as to the difficulties presented by its bar, but the experience of the settlement at Astoria, and indeed the testimony of all the persons who have spoken of it, show that the bar may be readily passed under favorable circumstances. The only doubt which arises is as to the difficulties presented by unfortunate combinations of tide and weather. From Cape Hancock, or Disappointment, on the northern side of the mouth, and Cape Adams on the southern, sand-bars run out across the channel towards each other. "The current of the river on one side and the swell and waves of the Pacific on the other side of the bar, meet," says an eye-witness, "with terrific violence, producing a most formidable line of breakers." That these breakers are not the sign of any impassable obstacles, however, appears from the experience of several merchant commanders, who have passed with five fathoms water when the wind was strongly west, and the water breaking over the bar. It was on this bar that the Peacock was lost in July of last year. The account of that disaster, published at the time, [see Mon. Chron. Vol. III. p. 91,] throws

some little light on the difficulties of the channel. As Lieutenant Wilkes subsequently explored the channel diligently, his observations upon it, when published, will give full information. From such information as we have, however, we do not doubt that a skilful pilot could take a ship into the river at any time of wind or tide. Steam tow-boats, as some of the travellers to the Columbia have suggested, would probably remove every difficulty.

The bay at the north of Cape Hancock is a deep and good harbor, as is Puget Sound, still farther to the north.

For vessels of fourteen feet draught, the river is navigable to the Cascades, 125 miles from its mouth. The Cascades are impassable for any craft; the water falls thirty-five feet in three miles. Between these and the severe rapids called the Dalles, a space of thirty-six miles, the river is wide and deep, and the current is gentle. The Dalles are passable at low water by skilful boatmen in canoes, but at high water are impracticable even for such craft. The river rushes through a space not more than one hundred and fifty feet wide, walled in by upright basaltic columns on each side. Five miles above the Dalles are the falls of the Columbia, which are passed at very high water by experienced canoe-men, in either direction, but at low water are impracticable. From this point the river might probably be used by steamboats to Kettle Falls, just below Colville.

The great variation in the depth of water where the river is as much confined as at the Dalles is shown by a curious fact, mentioned by Captain Wyeth. At a time when the water was not very low, he measured fifty-four feet upward, to the high water mark left on the basaltic columns. At such times the water between the Dalles and the falls becomes almost a lake, and the surface is almost as high as that of the river above the falls.

Clarke river, in its whole course, is difficult of navigation, to the best boatmen with good canoes, and is impracticable for any other kind of vessel. Lewis river and its branches are not much better. The Wallamette, the only tributary of importance which does not rise in the Rocky Mountains, is navigable for twenty miles from its mouth for vessels of 12 feet draught; it then becomes shoaler and more rapid, and at twenty-five miles from its mouth are the falls, which are twenty-two feet high. Above these steamboats might ply about fifty miles. This river empties into the Columbia about 90 miles from the sea. Its valley is considered the finest country in the territory.

The whole water communication of the country indeed is decidedly bad, and there seems to be no convenient or ready means for improving it.

The principal ridges of mountains, much broken and divided,

intersect the Columbia territory, and divide it into three general divisions of climate and soil. These are the California or Klamath, or Cascade mountains, for they are distinguished by all the names, which are nearer the sea than the other range. They are in some places a hundred miles from the ocean, though generally nearer. Between them and the Rocky Mountains are the Blue Mountains; their course is not so regularly defined as either the other chains; they are broken into several ridges, some of which join the Rocky Mountains on the east, and some the California range on the west. They are steep, volcanic, and rocky, and present the chief difficulties to the transport of goods across the country. The Rocky Mountains, though higher, have several excellent passes suitable even for wheel carriages; but in the Blue Mountains the streams are almost impassable, and the land travel is suitable only for animals with packs.

To the west of the California range, the *lower region*, extending from that range to the sea, presents the most inviting district of the whole territory. The climate is as warm as that of the middle States, except that the nights are cooler. From April to October but little rain falls; it is rare to have any in June, July, August, or September. From October to April the rain is almost incessant, but there is very little snow. The climate is very much milder than the district on the eastern coast of America within the same parallels. The mercury in winter, it is said, is seldom below the freezing point, and rarely remains so low as that for a number of days.

Through the summer months the want of rain is partially supplied by heavy dews and occasional fogs. These do not seem, however, to be considered unhealthy, for both natives and whites sleep in the open air with impunity. Throughout the summer snow may be seen on the distant mountains, and the sea-breeze temper the heat so much, that it is never inconvenient; while the mildness of the winter is such, that the inhabitants can wear the same dress throughout the year.

This region seems to be well adapted for agricultural purposes. Figs, citrons, lemons, pomegranates, have been raised there as well as the more hardy fruits. Cattle seem to do well; those which have been carried thither have multiplied rapidly. The region does not present the advantages of the western states for raising pork, for there is but little mast on which to fatten the hogs. The extreme mildness of the winter is of course a great advantage to the graziers. The success of ordinary crops seems to be very satisfactory, though not probably so wonderful as in the valley of the Mississippi. Indian corn in particular fails. In general, it is said, that from the dryness of the summer, the products which

ripen earliest sustain the least damage, while late crops often suffer.

The *middle region*, between the California and Blue ranges, has but little good timber upon it, and its soil, though good, is less fertile than that just described. It is represented as one of the best grazing countries in the world; almost all the horses raised in the territory for Indians and traders are reared here. One Indian frequently owns several hundred. The climate is extremely healthy.

The *high region*, between the Blue and Rocky Mountains, presents few attractions either to farmer or grazier. There is very little available soil, and, excepting in a few days in spring, very little rain falls through the year.

The Indians have domesticated the horse and the dog only, from the wild animals in the country. The horses are of an excellent breed; it is said that they are frequently found wild. Among the wild animals are the sheep, the beaver, and otter, besides those found in most of the unsettled parts of America. The sheep is about the size of our common sheep, and white, the wool fine, but not so long as that of our domestic sheep. The natives, it is said, make blankets from the wool. It is to be hoped that the attention of settlers may be soon called to this animal, that proper means may be taken for the preservation of the race.

A strong desire has been manifested for some years past by the people of the western states, for the actual occupation of this territory, by the United States, by the establishment of a military post on the Columbia river, and the encouragement of adventurers who may be disposed to found a colony there. The subject has been frequently brought to the attention of Congress, with the view of obtaining a grant of authority to the executive government, for taking measures to this effect. No very definite exposition has been given of the advantages likely to result to the Union from such an extension of the actual jurisdiction of the government, or of the motives which should induce individuals to emigrate with their families to that remote region, for the purpose of laying the foundations of a new state there, in preference to a settlement on some of the numerous tracts of fertile territory, still unoccupied within the broad basin of the Mississippi, and its tributary streams. Several reports have been made to Congress, recommending some decisive action for the attainment of the object above stated.

At the recent session of Congress, the committee of the House of Representatives on military affairs, made an elaborate and able report, detailing the history of the discovery and settlement of the territory, giving a full geographical description of it from various

authorities, and concluding with offering a bill to provide for immediate military occupation of it. This bill proposed to authorize the President of the United States to cause two military posts to be established, one at or near the mouth of Columbia river, and the other at some suitable point west of the Cooper Bluffs, on the Missouri, in the most direct practicable line of communication between the United States and the mouth of the Columbia, and to cause a fort to be built at each of those posts, with the necessary quarters, storehouses, arsenals, and magazines, for the comfort of the troops, and the security of the public property. For this purpose, it was proposed that he should be authorized to employ such portion of the army as he might deem necessary, not exceeding fourteen hundred men, and such portion of the navy as he might deem necessary, to transport to the mouth of the Columbia river the requisite garrison stores and armaments. The bill proposed also additional encouragements for enlisting men in the service of these posts, and provision for the wives and children of soldiers at the several garrisons, and assigned to each post a chaplain, who in addition to the ordinary duties of his office, should also act as schoolmaster, under the rules and regulations of the commanding officer. The bill also proposed to authorize the President of the United States to employ a company, not exceeding fifty men, at an expense not exceeding a dollar a day, to act as guides and scouts, and to perform such services as might be required of them at the said posts.

In consequence of the unsettled state of the negotiation between the government of the United States and the British special minister at Washington, on the subject of the boundaries between the territories claimed by the two countries, the bill for the occupation of this territory was not called up in Congress at the last session. As the treaty happily concluded during these negotiations does not embrace any provision for the settlement of the boundary of this territory, this question remains open for future negotiation, and the proposition for the establishment of the posts, and the occupation of the territory, will probably be strongly urged at future sessions of Congress, until it shall be adopted.

ARTICLE XIII.

ORIENTAL LITERATURE.

THE Royal Library of France is richer, we believe, in manuscripts, than any other in the world, especially in works in the Oriental languages. From time to time, some of these have been published, with more or less pretension, in Paris and other parts of Europe, and such publications have afforded the most valuable materials to the student of Oriental literature and history. Recently, by the order of the king, a series has been begun of such of these works as have not before been edited, and three volumes of this collection have just appeared in Paris. The first is the history of the Mongols, by Raschid Eldin, the second the first volume of an epic poem of Ferdoussi's, entitled *Shah Nameh the Great*, or the *Book of the Kings*; and the third is the first volume of *Bhagavata-Purana*. None of these works have reached this country. In a French journal of our latest dates, we find an account of the first of them, by the French critic Saint Marc Girardin, which gives so curious an account of the book, and of one of the passages of Oriental history, of which it treats, that we translate the greater part of it. It will be understood, that together with the Arabic text, a French translation is printed in this new edition. M. Girardin is not an Oriental scholar. The translation of the *History of the Mongols* is by M. Quatremère.

Raschid-Eldin, says M. Girardin, was not merely an author and scholar; he was a minister, a vizier, and vizier of one of the most powerful empires in the world. He built a new suburb to the town of Tauriz, he founded mosques, dug canals, and carried aqueducts across mountains, that this favorite suburb might be well watered. He spent more than 900,000 francs upon the copying, punctuation, and revision of his book, that it might certainly survive him, and that there might be a large number of copies of it. More than this, as minister, he brought his colleague, of whom he was jealous, into disgrace, and had him condemned to death; he chose a new colleague himself, and brought him in turn to disgrace and execution; and was himself beheaded at the age of sixty-three years. Such were his adventures, his fortunes, and his troubles; and yet, his name even would have been lost but for M. Quatremère's erudition; and of all the numerous copies of his works there is but one manuscript left, and that is an incom-

* *Histoire des Mongols de la Perse*, écrite en Persan par Raschid-Eldin, publiée et traduite en Français; par M. Quatremère, membre de l'Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres.

plete one, containing only the first part of his history.' After this who would be a statesman? Who would be an author? Who would be both at once, like Raschid-Eldin?

M. Quatremère has not even published a translation of all the part of Raschid-Eldin's work which remains. He restricts himself to the history of the Persian Mongols, and the volume which has just appeared contains the life of Houlagou-Khan, who founded the dynasty of the Persian Mongols; a dynasty which lasted a short time, and was then overturned by Tamerlane. Houlagou-Khan was the grandson of Genghis Khan. His brother Mangou Khan, who was the sovereign, gave him an army and sent him to conquer Persia. When he departed, Mangou, as his last advice, bade him always observe the usages, customs, and laws of Genghis Khan, to treat those who submitted kindly, while he was sternly rigorous to those who resisted. "Let your subjects," said he, "be always free from burdens and unjust contributions; take care to repopulate countries which have been desolated by war. . . . Do not fail, in every contingency, to consult Dokouskhatoun, and take her advice." Who was this Dokouskhatoun, who was to be the conqueror's adviser? She was his wife, or rather one of his wives. She had been the wife of his father, Toulou-Khan, and at his death had passed with his household into his son's hands;—this strange contradiction resulting from national customs! The wife, according to Oriental customs, is a slave, and makes a part of the domestic establishment; but although a slave, a wife among the Mongols is powerful and respected, and counsels even conquerors. Dokouskhatoun was, in the family of Toulou Khan, a sort of Egeria. We ought to add, that she was a christian; at least, she loved and protected the christians.

Houlagou-Khan, in the letters which he wrote to the Sultans of Asia Minor and Persia, gave a religious pretext to his expeditions. He came, he said, to destroy the fortresses of the Ismaeliens, and to extirpate that sect entirely. If the Sultans were disposed to range themselves under his banners, and aid his enterprise, he assured to them the possession of their estates, armies, and palaces. If not, he threatened to treat them as if themselves Ismaeliens, and to destroy them in their turn. This religious pretext is one of those traits which characterize the East. In the East almost all wars are religious wars. Tamerlane, in his expeditions, was at the same time a pitiless warrior and a fanatical devotee. The character of Mahomet, that of an apostle and conqueror, is natural to the East, and religious zeal plays a part in all the revolutions of Oriental empires.

After having destroyed the forces of the Ismaeliens, Houlagou-

Khan marched against Bagdad, and overthrew the empire of the *Abassides*.*

The caliphate of Bagdad had long been tottering to its fall. All the presages of the fall of states had appeared every where around it: the revolt of provinces; the empire reduced to its capital; this capital itself the prey to sedition, recurring from the fear inspired by the approach of the Mongol conqueror, to vain bursts of audacity and idle recollections of former glory, and thus accusing every body of treason, in the ordinary course of nations which have been powerful, and which, not resigned to weakness, prefer to believe and declare themselves betrayed. On the throne was an effeminate prince, troubled at the sight of danger, now fierce and insolent, as if God would not permit the fall of the *Abassides*, now recurring to the basest submissions. Thus do nations, thus do royal races sink to their ruin. Raschid-Eldin has painted this agony of the caliphate in lively colors.

Before marching against Bagdad, Houlagou-Khan sent a message to the caliph Motassem: "You sent me no soldiers against the *Ismaliens*, and you made idle excuses for your neglect. Your family is ancient and illustrious, your race has been favored by fortune, but the moon only shines clearly when the brilliant sun is concealed. You know to what treatment, since the reign of Ghengis Khan, the Mongol armies have subjected the world." He proceeds to detail all the empires and dynasties destroyed by the Mongols; he required of the caliph that he should destroy the ramparts, and fill up the ditches of his towns, to surrender to him, to acknowledge himself the vassal of the Mongols. "If you wish to save your head and your ancient family, listen to my advice; if you refuse to take it, I will see what is the will of God."

The caliph made a proud reply to this terrible message; he alluded to the greatness and the sanctity of the family of the *Abassides*. Invested with the priesthood and the empire, the *Abassides* had a double degree of presumption, that of a royal race and that of a sacred race; but the Mongols had the power in their hands. When Houlagou-Khan heard the reply of the caliph, he said: "The caliph appears as crooked as a bow; but if the eternal God protects me, I will punish this braggart, so as to make him as straight as an arrow."

When Motassem heard of the anger of Houlagou-Khan, he began to be troubled, and consulted his vizier, who, knowing the

* The first line of Mahometan caliphs were the *Osmiada*, of the race of Omar, the first caliph after Mahomet. In the year 1749, after nineteen of these caliphs had held the throne, the line of the *Abassides*, descended from Mahomet by the male line, superseded them. They removed the seat of government to Bagdad. To this line belonged Haroun al Raschid, of ever glorious memory.

weakness of the caliph, advised him to send presents to Houlagou, that if possible he might appease his rage. But the other courtier declared that the vizier was betraying the caliph, and that he broke communication with the Khan. Motassem regained courage, recalling once more recollections of the grandeur of his race. "What distress," said he, in the midst of his applauding courtiers, "need the family of Abbas conceive? Are not all the monarchs who reign on the face of the world my soldiers? Take courage then, vizier, and do not regard these threats of the Mongols." These words troubled the vizier, for he saw distinctly that the reign of the Abbassides was at an end; and as it was under his vizier that this catastrophe would take place, he turned upon himself like a serpent, and reviewed in his mind all kinds of expedients.

I do not know but I am wrong, continues M. Girardin; but this view of the court of Bagdad and the camp of the Mongols here pride without strength, there a sort of hardy confidence in the will of God, which the Mongols had often proved in triumph; these cries of treason uttered by the courtier, and above all, the old vizier, who knows the weakness of the empire, who sees the presages of the fall of the caliphate in the blindness of the court which accuses him, and who, dumb with sadness at the sight of this catastrophe, vainly tries to save this dying state, like a physician, who, at the bed of a patient whose condition is desperate, yet tries his art, although it has become powerless against death — all this seems to me to be painted in a manner worthy of the greatest historians of antiquity. These scenes give us at the same time a view of the manners of the time and country, and of the characteristics of humanity. This is the merit of the great historian; in the same sketch he represents the man of the time and the man of all time.

We have seen the interior of the court of the caliph Motassem. Let us return to the camp of Houlagou. He marched against Bagdad, but was not without doubt as to the result of his enterprise, when he thought of the strong fortifications of the city and of the ascendancy which the very name of caliph possessed. He called upon the astronomer Hosam-Eldin, whom Mangou-Khan had sent with him, that he should choose the most favorable moments for encampment or for marching, and bade him tell without flattery what the stars presaged. The astronomer declared formally that an enterprise whose object was an attack on the family of the caliphs and a march against Bagdad, could not have a favorable result. In fact, said he, in all past time, no king who has dared to march against Bagdad and the descendants of Abbas has preserved his throne or his life. Houlagou-Khan con-

ented himself with asking of the astronomer a written attestation of his prediction. On the other hand, the lamas and the emirs protested that an expedition against Bagdad would prove fortunate. Houlagou then sent for another astronomer, named Khodjah Nasir Eldin, and asked his advice. Nasir Eldin replied that none of the misfortunes prophesied by Hosam-Eldin would take place. "What will happen then?" asked they. "Houlagou-Khan will reign in the place of the caliph." Hosam-Eldin disputed with Nasir in the presence of Houlagou. The argument of Nasir is curious. The family of Abbas has no peculiar prerogative, and may be attacked without any risk of the anger of God; and he cited numerous caliphs of this family who had been assassinated by different persons without any disorderly results, as a proof of this assertion. "In hearing the speech of this skilful man, the heart of Houlagou-Khan regained an energy like the colors which appear on the tulip in the first days of spring." What strikes me as remarkable in this discussion among the astrologers, is the care which Houlagou-Khan took to prove that the family of Abbas had no religious character, and that he might carry on a war against the caliph without sacrilege or impiety. This care shows the influence which the name of caliph still had in the East.

Once reassured on this question of conscience, Houlagou-Khan marched with his Mongols against Bagdad. The troops of the caliph were conquered in a decisive battle, and the Mongol army extended itself round Bagdad as numerous as ants or grasshoppers. At this sight, the caliph's pride gave way to fear. He sent his vizier to Houlagou-Khan, and made him say: "The Mongol monarch has asked me to send him my vizier. I do what he asked. Let the prince on his side hold to his word." Houlagou replied: "When I made that demand I was under the walls of Hamadan. Now I am encamped before Bagdad, the sea of trouble and of war is fully agitated, and shall I satisfy myself with one of the great functionaries of the state? He must send me all three: the vizier, the defterdar, and Soleiman Schah."

The different steps of the fall of Motassem are shown in an expressive and touching manner. At first, he consented to send his vizier. Houlagou-Khan required him to send the three first functionaries of state. Motassem decided to send them the next day; but during the night the Mongols gained possession of a part of the ramparts of Bagdad. Houlagou-Khan was no longer satisfied with the supplication of the three first dignitaries of the empire; the second son of the caliph himself went out of the town and sought the conqueror with great presents. Houlagou would not receive him. The eldest son of the caliph went in turn

with more precious gifts; Houlagou was inflexible. Then desolation and terror spread through Bagdad; the soldiers of the caliph tried to escape from the town, but the Mongols detected and killed them; those who remained in the town hid themselves in cellars and in the furnaces with which the baths were heated. While these things were going on, an arrow from the town hit the tent of one of the chief Mongol emirs, and Houlagou, inflamed with anger, ordered his army to storm the town. But Bagdad had no longer any defenders. Its inhabitants rushed out of the town to implore the clemency of the conqueror. This was the beginning of a bloody tragedy, for Houlagou put to death the grandees of the empire as soon as they were brought before him. At last the caliph came, with his three sons and more than three thousand seids, imaums, and cadis, abandoning his town, his empire, and his life; for he knew what his lot would be, according to eastern policy. Houlagou received him calmly, asked him some questions with mildness and gentleness, and then said to him: "Order the inhabitants of Bagdad to throw down their arms and go out of the city, that we may make an enumeration of them." The caliph proclaimed through Bagdad an edict that the inhabitants should throw down their arms and go without the walls. The inhabitants obeyed, and were no sooner disarmed, than they were delivered in troops to the Mongols, who massacred them immediately. After this massacre, Bagdad was given over to pillage. The Mongols rushed into the town and *burned the green and dry*, and two days after Houlagou took possession of the caliph's palace, and gave a feast there to his emirs. By his order, the caliph was brought before him, and he said to him, "You have received us here. We are your guests; see if you have no present fit to offer us." The caliph, who believed that this speech was serious, meant, trembled with fear, and was so much distressed, that he could not distinguish among his different keys. He broke open several locks, and presented to the Mongol monarch two thousand vestments, ten thousand pieces of gold and jewels, and gems beyond number. Houlagou received these gifts with scorn, and distributed them to his emirs and other chiefs. At last, they broke in upon the caliph's harem. When Motassem saw this, he was more troubled than ever, and, in a suppliant tone, he said to Houlagou: "Must I give up to you these women from my harem, on whom the light of the sun or moon has never shone?" He permitted him to choose a hundred, whom he took with him.

What truth in the representations of this scene! This feast in the conquered palace; this cruel irony of the conqueror; the distress and fear of the conquered; this sudden change of fortune in the face of these walls, which had so long seen the glory of the

Abassides, and which were now to see their humiliation; these keys, which the caliph sought and could not find; and this grief, above all, because this trait shows eastern manners most distinctly; this grief and supplication when the harem was to be broken up; and when the conquered monarch learned that his women were to be shown to the open day, as if all the signs of his misfortune had not affected him so much as this; this proof that he was no longer master of any thing, not even of the veil which secluded the women of his harem; that sacred veil, the right to which is the last which the Orientals relinquish.

We do not obtain general considerations and political reflections of this kind, in which modern historians take such delight immediately from Raschid-Eldin. Raschid-Eldin seems to me to be a great moralist, but such a moralist as are the writers of fiction; his writings, I mean, contain a striking and important moral. The reader has to find this moral for himself; the author does not express it. It does not interrupt the narrative. The drama is not stopped, that the author may come forward, and history of this kind has the more of truth and interest; it is a more faithful image of human affairs. This power of making a narrative which shall embody a moral, of placing his actors on the stage in such a way as to please the fancy while he paints their characters at the same time, is strikingly evinced throughout the writings of Raschid-Eldin.

We have no space to follow M. Girardin in his sketch of another of the chapters of Raschid-Eldin's history. The passage which we have exhibited to the reader describes one of the most important epochs of Oriental history, for such must the fall of the Saracen empire be considered, in whatever light we view it. But the epochs of Oriental history, the fall of Oriental dynasties, are, almost proverbially, consigned by common consent to forgetfulness. It is not so much as a passage of history, therefore, that we have introduced this sketch in these pages; but as a specimen, and an interesting one, of the literature of the East; a literature which is the more interesting to us from the very broad divisions between it and our own. We shall be glad to see the second volume of the work, which has furnished the materials for this sketch, for, in the words of the French critic, whom we have followed, while it is honorable to begin enterprises like this, which are really public monuments, it is as honorable as it is unusual to complete them.

M I S C E L L A N Y .

A TREATY,

To settle and define the Boundary between the Territories of the United States and the possessions of Her Britannic Majesty in North America, for the final suppression of the African Slave Trade, and for giving up of criminals, fugitives from justice, in certain cases.

WHEREAS certain portions of the line of boundary between the United States of America and the British dominions in North America, described in the Second Article of the Treaty of Peace of 1783, have not yet been ascertained and determined, notwithstanding the repeated attempts which have been heretofore made for that purpose: and whereas it is now thought to be for the interest of both parties that, avoiding further discussion of their respective rights, arising in this respect under the said Treaty, they should agree on a conventional line in said portions of the said boundary, such as may be convenient to both parties, with such equivalents and compensations as are deemed just and reasonable: And whereas, by the Treaty concluded at Ghent on the 24th day of December, 1814, between the United States and His Britannic Majesty, an article was agreed to and inserted of the following tenor, namely: "Article 10. Whereas the traffic in slaves is irreconcilable with the principles of humanity and justice: And whereas, both His Majesty and the United States are desirous of continuing their efforts to promote its entire abolition, it is hereby agreed that both the contracting parties shall use the best endeavors to accomplish so desirable an object:" And whereas notwithstanding the laws which have at various times been passed by the two Governments, and the efforts made to suppress it, that criminal traffic is still prosecuted and carried on: And whereas the United States of America and Her Majesty, the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, are determined that, so far as may be in their power, it shall be effectually abolished: And whereas it is found expedient for the better administration of justice and the prevention of crime within the territories and jurisdiction of the two parties respectively, that persons committing the crimes hereinafter enumerated, and being fugitives from justice, should, under certain circumstances, be reciprocally delivered up: The United States of America and Her Britannic Majesty, having resolved to treat on these several subjects, have for that purpose appointed their respective Plenipotentiaries to negotiate and conclude a Treaty: that is to say, the President of the United States has, on his part, furnished with full powers Daniel Webster, Secretary of State of the United States, and Her Majesty, the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great

Britain and Ireland, has on her part appointed the Right Honorable Alexander Lord Ashburton, a Peer of the said United Kingdom, a member of Her Majesty's most honorable Privy Council, and Her Majesty's Minister Plenipotentiary on a Special Mission to the United States; who, after a reciprocal communication of their respective full powers, have agreed to and signed the following Articles :

ARTICLE I. It is hereby agreed and declared that the line of boundary shall be as follows :

Beginning at the Monument at the source of the river St. Croix, as designated and agreed to, by the Commissioners under the 5th Article in the Treaty of 1794, between the Governments of the United States and Great Britain; thence, north, following the exploring line run and marked by the surveyors of the two Governments in the years 1817 and 1818, under the 5th article of the Treaty of Ghent, to its intersection with the river St. John, and to the middle of the channel thereof; thence, up the middle of the main channel of said river St. John, to the mouth of the river St. Francis; thence, up the middle of the channel of the said river St. Francis, and of the lakes through which it flows, to the outlet of the lake Pohenagamook; thence, southwesterly, in a straight line to a point on the northwest branch of the river St. John, which point shall be ten miles distant from the main branch of the St. John, in a straight line, and in the nearest direction; but if the said point shall be found to be less than seven miles from the nearest point, or summit, or crest of the highlands that divide those rivers which empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence from those which fall into the river St. John, to a point seven miles in a straight line from the said summit or crest; thence, in a straight line in a course about south eight degrees west to the point where the parallel of latitude of 46 deg. 25m. north intersects the southwest branch of the St. John; thence, southerly by the said branch, to the source thereof in the highlands at the Metjarmette portage; thence, down along the said highlands, which divide the waters which empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence from those which fall into the Atlantic Ocean, to the head of Hall's stream; thence, down the middle of said stream till the line thus run intersects the old line of boundary surveyed and marked by Valentine and Collins previously to the year 1774, as the 45th degree of north latitude, and which has been known and understood to be the line of actual division between the states of New York and Vermont on one side, and the British Province of Canada on the other; and, from said point of intersection, west along the said dividing line as heretofore known and understood, to the Iroquois, or St. Lawrence river.

ARTICLE II. — It is moreover agreed, that, from the place where the joint-commissioners terminated their labors, under the sixth article of the Treaty of Ghent, to wit : At a point in the Neebrik channel, near Muddy lake, the line shall run into and along the ship channel, between St. Joseph and St. Tammany Islands, to the division of the channel at or near the head of St. Joseph's Island; thence, turning eastwardly and northwardly, around the lower end of St. George's or Sugar Island, and following the middle of the channel which divides St. George's from St. Joseph's Island; thence, up the East Neebrik channel, nearest to St.

George's Island, through the middle of Lake George; thence west to Jona's Island, into St. Mary's River, to a point in the middle of the river, about one mile above St. George's or Sugar Island, so as to appropriate and assign the said Island to the United States; thence along the line traced on the Maps by the commissioners, through the river St. Mary and lake Superior, to a point north of Ile Royal in said lake, a hundred yards to the north and east of Ile Chapeau, which last-mentioned island lies near the northeastern point of Ile Royal, where the line marked by the commissioners terminates; and from the last-mentioned point, southwesterly, through the middle of the sound between Ile Royal and the northwestern main land, to the mouth of Pigeon river, and at the said river to, and through, the North and South Fowl lakes, to the lake on the height of land between lake Superior and the lake of the Woods; thence along the water communication to lake Saisaquinago, and through that lake; thence to and through Cypress lake, Lac de Bois Blanc, Lac la Croix, Little Vermilion lake, and lake Namecan, and through the several smaller lakes, straits, or streams, connecting the lakes here mentioned, to that point in Lac la Pluie or Rainy lake, at the Chandler Falls, from which the commissioners traced the line to the most northwestern point of the Lake of the Woods; thence along the said line to the said most northwest point, being in latitude 49 deg. 23m. 55s. north and in longitude 95 deg. 14m. 38s. west from the observatory at Greenwich; thence, according to existing treaties, due south to its intersection with the 49th parallel of north latitude, and along that parallel to the Rocky Mountains. It being understood that all the water communications and all the usual portage along the lines from lake Superior to the Lake of the Woods, and also Grand Portage, from the shore of lake Superior to the Pigeon river, as now actually used, shall be free and open to the use of the citizens and subjects of both countries.

ARTICLE III. — In order to promote the interests and encourage the industry of all the inhabitants of the countries watered by the river St. John and its tributaries, whether living within the state of Maine or the province of New Brunswick, it is agreed that where, by the provisions of the present treaty, the river St. John is declared to be the line of boundary, the navigation of said river shall be free and open to both parties and shall in no way be obstructed by either; that all the produce of the forest in logs, lumber, timber, boards, staves, or shingles, or of agriculture not being manufactured, grown on any of those parts of the state of Maine watered by the river St. John, or by its tributaries, of which reasonable evidence shall, if required, be produced, shall have free access into and through the said river and its said tributaries, having their source within the state of Maine, to and from the seaport at the mouth of the said river St. John, and to and round the falls of said river, either by boats, rafts, or other conveyance; that when within the province of New Brunswick, the said produce shall be dealt with as if it were the produce of said province: that, in like manner, the inhabitants of the territory of the Upper St. John determined by this treaty to belong to Her Britannic Majesty, shall have free access to and through the river for their produce, in those parts where the said river runs wholly through the state of Maine:

provided always, that this agreement shall give no right to either party to interfere with any regulations not inconsistent with the terms of this treaty, which the Governments, respectively, of Maine or of New Brunswick may make respecting the navigation of the said river, when both banks thereof shall belong to the same party.

ARTICLE IV. — All grants of land heretofore made by either party, within the limits of the territory which by this treaty falls within the dominions of the other party, shall be held valid, ratified and confirmed to the persons in possession under such grants, to the same extent as if such territory had by this treaty fallen within the dominion of the party by whom such grants were made; and all equitable possessory claims, arising from a possession and improvement of any lot or parcel of land by the person actually in possession, or by those under whom such person claims, for more than six years before the date of such treaty, shall, in like manner, be deemed valid, and be confirmed and quieted by a release to the person entitled thereto, of the title to such lot or parcel of land, so described as best to include the improvements made thereon; and in all other respects the two contracting parties agree to deal upon the most liberal principles of equity with the settlers actually dwelling on the territory falling to them respectively, which has heretofore been in dispute between them.

ARTICLE V. — Whereas, in the course of the controversy respecting the disputed territory on the northeastern boundary, some moneys have been received by the authorities of Her Britannic Majesty's province of New Brunswick, with the intention of preventing depredations on the forests of the said territory, which moneys were carried to a fund called the "disputed territory fund," the proceeds whereof it was agreed should be hereafter paid over to the parties interested, in the proportions to be determined by a final settlement of boundaries: — It is hereby agreed, that a correct account of all receipts and payments on the said fund, shall be delivered to the Government of the United States, within six months after the ratification of this treaty; and the proportions of the amount due thereon to the states of Maine and Massachusetts, and any bonds and securities appertaining thereto shall be paid and delivered over to the Government of the United States; and the Government of the United States agree to receive for the use of, and pay over to the states of Maine and Massachusetts their respective portions of said fund; and further to pay and satisfy said states, respectively, for all claims for expenses incurred by them in protecting the said heretofore disputed territory, and making a survey thereof in 1838; the Government of the United States agreeing with the states of Maine and Massachusetts to pay them the further sum of three hundred thousand dollars, in equal moieties, on account of their assent to the line of boundary described in this treaty, and in consideration of the equivalent received therefore from the Government of Her Britannic Majesty.

ARTICLE VI. — It is furthermore understood and agreed, that for the purpose of running and tracing those parts of the line between the source of the St. Croix and the St. Lawrence river, which will require to be run

and ascertained, and for marking the residue of said line by proper monuments on the land, two commissioners shall be appointed, one by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, and one by Her Britannic Majesty; and the said commissioners shall meet at Bangor, in the state of Maine, on the first of May next, or as soon thereafter as may be, and shall proceed to set the line above described, from the source of the St. Croix to the river John; and shall trace on proper marks the dividing line along said river and along the river St. Francis, to the outlet of the lake Pohenagamon, and from the outlet of said lake they shall ascertain, fix and mark, by durable monuments upon the land, the line described in the first article of this treaty; and the said commissioners shall make to each of the respective Governments a joint report, or declaration, under their hands and seals, designating such line of boundary, and shall accompany said report or declaration with maps certified by them to be true maps of the new boundary.

ARTICLE VII. — It is further agreed, that the channels in the river St. Lawrence, on both sides of the Long Sault Islands, and of Barnhart's and; the channels in the river Detroit, on both sides of the island of St. Blanc, and between that island and both the American and Canadian shores; and all the several channels and passages between the various islands lying near the junction of the river St. Clair, with the lake of the same name, shall be equally free and open to the ships, vessels, and boats of both parties.

ARTICLE VIII. — The parties mutually stipulate that each shall prepare, equip and maintain in service, on the coast of Africa, a sufficient and adequate squadron or naval force of vessels, of suitable numbers and description, to carry in all not less than eighty guns, to enforce, separately and respectively, the laws, rights, and obligations of each of the two countries, for the suppression of the slave trade; the said squadrons to be independent of each other, but the two Governments stipulating, nevertheless, to give such orders to the officers commanding their respective forces, as shall enable them most effectually to act in concert and cooperation, upon mutual consultation, as exigencies may arise for the attainment of the true object of this article; copies of all such orders to be communicated by each Government to the other respectively.

ARTICLE IX. — Whereas, notwithstanding all efforts which may be made on the coast of Africa for suppressing the slave-trade, the facilities for carrying on that traffic and avoiding the vigilance of cruisers by the fraudulent use of flags and other means, are so great, and the temptation for pursuing it, while a market can be found for slaves, so strong, that the desired result may be long delayed, unless all markets be shut against the purchase of African negroes; the parties to this treaty agree that they will unite in all becoming representations and remonstrances, with any and all powers within whose dominions such markets are allowed to exist; and that they will urge upon all such powers the propriety and duty of closing such markets at once and for ever.

ARTICLE X. — It is agreed that the United States and Her Britannic Majesty shall, upon mutual requisitions by them, or their ministers, off-

cers, or authorities, respectively made, deliver up to justice all persons who, being charged with the crime of murder, or assault with intent to commit murder, or piracy, or arson, or robbery, or forgery, or the utterance of forged papers, committed within the jurisdiction of either, shall seek an asylum, or shall be found, within territories of the other: provided, that this shall only be done upon such evidence of criminality as, according to the laws of the place where the fugitive or person so charged shall be found, would justify his apprehension, and commitment for trial, if the crime or offence had there been committed: and the respective judges and other magistrates of the two Governments shall have power, jurisdiction, and authority, upon complaint made under oath, to issue a warrant for the apprehension of the fugitive or person so charged, that he may be brought before such judges or other magistrates, respectively, to the end that the evidence of criminality may be heard and considered; and if, on such hearing, the evidence be deemed sufficient to sustain the charge, it shall be the duty of the examining judge or magistrate to certify the same to the proper executive authority, that a warrant may issue for the surrender of such fugitive. The expense of such apprehension and delivery shall be borne and defrayed by the party who makes the requisition, and receives the fugitive.

ARTICLE XI. — The eighth article of this treaty shall be in force for five years from the date of the ratification, and afterward until one or the other party shall signify a wish to terminate it. The tenth article shall continue in force until one or the other party shall signify its wish to terminate it, and no longer.

ARTICLE XII. — The present treaty shall be duly ratified, and the mutual exchange of ratifications shall take place in London, within six months from the date hereof, or earlier if possible.

In faith whereof, we, the respective Plenipotentiaries, have signed this treaty, and have hereunto affixed our seals.

Done in duplicate at Washington, the ninth day of August, Anno Domini, one thousand eight hundred and forty-two.

ASHBURTON, [SEAL.]
DANIEL WEBSTER, [SEAL.]

EARTHQUAKE AT ST. DOMINGO.

IN the Chronicle of the 1st of June, we gave an account of the distressing ravages made by the earthquake of the 6th of May in the island of St. Domingo. The following extract from a private letter, written to London, which has just been published, gives a graphic and interesting detailed account of the events at the city of Cape Haytien, where the shock was most severe. This account is much more full than any which has reached us, and we believe may be relied on with confidence. The letter is dated June 11, more than a month after the disaster:

"The earthquake consisted of a quick succession of lateral or horizontal movements. I am certain that I likewise felt one powerful vertical or up-and-down movement. The shocks succeeded each other so quickly, that the earth appeared to be in a continued agitation, of such violence that I could with difficulty keep my legs. There was no prelude, no air or superterranean noises, no slight symptoms to warn us of the approaching convulsion. The duration of the several shocks that laid the town prostrate was not above 40 seconds at the utmost. The houses commenced falling on the instant; a thick cloud of dust arose, accompanied by a quick rolling or heavy motion, with an unbroken fierce roar and suffocating heat. It was indeed an awful moment. I was standing on the balcony of an upper story house, and quick as thought took my position under the archway of the door leading into the *salon*. The wall over my head split to the very top; showers of lime, dust, and stones poured down upon me. The greater part of the house had already fallen, the earth still reeled, and I believed my last moment had arrived, when the movement ceased, and I jumped from the ruins, and escaped to the *Place d'Eglise*. The church, which was of vast dimensions and noble architecture, and all the fine houses surrounding the square, were flat on the ground.

"It was the first shock, or rather quick succession of shocks, not occupying above 40 seconds, that did all the havoc. For the next eight hours we had shocks every five or ten minutes, but none at all approaching the primary ones in force or duration. Their direction was from east to west, or nearly so. The earth was rent and split in very many places. The *Bord de la Mer* street runs nearly north and south, and fissures were still visible its entire length, nearly three-quarters of a mile.

"About five minutes after the great shock, the sea rose from five to six feet, and rushed to the shore, retired and rose and again, and so on for four or five times. It was knee-deep on the *Bord de la Mer* street. The vessels in the harbor felt the effects severely. The captains told me that they expected to see their masts every moment fall over the sides: yet they suffered no injury.

"Happening on Saturday, the market-day, when great numbers of the country people were in town, the mortality was proportionably augmented. The population of the town was about 10,000, half of whom were supposed to have perished. Another calculation states three-fourths. In my opinion 6,000, including the country people, would be near the truth.

"Fires broke out immediately after the convulsion, and raged for ten days, adding to the distress and horror of the survivors; and numbers of the poor creatures buried alive under the ruins met a shockingly painful death. Many who were seen badly wounded and incapable of moving, on the evening of the catastrophe, were burnt during the night, a few bones merely remaining next morning.

"The survivors fled for refuge to the *Tossette*, a large open green to the south of the town, carrying with them such of the wounded and the dying as could be extricated from the ruins. What a night of horror, doubt, and dread! The mingled cries of the wounded and of the chil-

dren, the wailings and shrieks of the women, the subterranean thundering, the almost uninterrupted quaking of the earth, produced an effect which no pen can describe, nor imagination conceive. A slight rain fell for two or three hours, and added to our misery. I lay on the bare ground, and, with my ear applied to the short grass, heard with great distinctness the subterranean noises, exactly resembling the ordinary thunders in the atmosphere, except that they were of shorter duration. Each shaking of the surface was preceded by an interior noise. In one instance my ear received a sensation as if an immense globe or globular mass or volume was being forced from the centre towards the crust of the earth, immediately after which we had a very short but severe up-and-down movement. To the S. E. the sky during the night was intensely black. Clouds of smoke rolled over our heads. The limestone rocks that crown the mountain to the rear of the town, shone so brightly by reflection of the light of the burning town, that many supposed a volcano was there breaking out.

"Next morning, the 8th, broke bright and balmy, as if in mockery of the sorrowing, the wounded, the dying, and the dead. Yet was it indeed a consolation to have a clear sky and warm sun to recirculate their blood, stagnant from exposure and the horrors of the night. It was only next morning that persons seemed fully to comprehend the extent of their losses. A stupefaction or mortal terror had benumbed their faculties, which, with the returning light, seemed to regain their wonted consciousness. Now commenced the painful task of extricating from the ruins the yet living buried. Indeed, between the moment of the fatal shock and night-fall, hundreds were eagerly engaged in striving to rescue their friends, though themselves menaced with destruction; little, however, was done before next morning, when no danger or labor was shunned in these praiseworthy efforts. Strange and almost incredible have been the escapes. I know of at least a dozen persons who were sitting in their balconies when the entire fronts of the houses, from foundation to summit, fell out into the street, who yet received no mortal wounds. Many households have been altogether destroyed. From 10 to 50 country people were killed in and around the houses of each of the coffee buyers.

"On the very night of the earthquake the *canaille* of the town began thieving on a small scale, but it was on the third day that the sack and plunder commenced *en grand*. On that day the country people flocked in, and for eight or ten successive days it was one continued scene of open, undisguised sword-in-hand pillage. No town given up to a victorious army was ever so thoroughly gutted. The merchants' stores on the Bord de la Mer were the most especial objects of spoliation. Every man was armed, and bloody fights were of common occurrence over the division of the spoil, or when a stronger party attempted to wrest the booty from a weaker.

"Not the slightest effort was made by the authorities to keep order. General Charrier, commanding the arrondissement, and Colonel Cincinnati, Commandant de la Place, were both wounded, and consequently incapable of active exertions, yet by no means incapable of giving orders. Commandant Bottex was the most efficient on the occasion; being, how-

ever, only third in command, he could do but little. Then, indeed, we felt the great loss we sustained by the death of his father, General Bonaparte, whose courage, energy, and talent would, without doubt, have prevented all this anarchy. I am grieved to add, that it is not of the supineness of the chief authorities we have alone to complain. The great hardship is that soldiers and officers, who should have been our protectors, violated each other in the unholy work of robbing the wounded, the dying lieutenants, captains, and commandants are publicly spoken of as having been the most wholesale plunderers. It is said, in extenuation of the inertness of the chief authorities, that the surviving soldiers did not answer the summons to arms, and would not obey their chiefs. How could it be otherwise, when the soldiers saw those very chiefs with the exception of General Charrier, Colonel Cincinnatus, Commandant Bataillon, and a few more, the principal actors in the scene of robbery? At Port-au-Paix an attempt was made to plunder the town; but the Colonel commanding seized two of the wretches, and had them instantly shot, which put a stop to the pillage. One hundred armed men would, I am sure, in two or three hours, have arrested all the disorder and outrage at the Cape. Shameful, disgraceful has been the conduct of the inhabitants of the North on this occasion. No foreigner, but at the imminent risk of his life, could have put a foot on the ruins of his house, to save even a change of clothes. To attempt such a thing would have been extreme fool-hardiness. The robbers killed each other in and before the store for a piece of cotton-check. What then could an owner of property as a foreigner expect, if he dared to interfere with them? The foreign merchants lost all the goods they had in store; most of them likewise had their strong iron chests plundered. The Haytian merchants likewise suffered, but not to the same extent; for they, their friends, and dependents, armed themselves, and saved more or less of their effects.

"We do not complain of the punishment and loss which a righteous God has inflicted on us, but of the open rapine perpetrated by the inhabitants of town and plain. We complain of the passive inertness of some to defend, and the active participation of others in the plunder of goods and chattels. I am convinced, that no one regrets more than his Excellency the President the outrages committed. I, moreover, believe that he would gladly punish the offenders, if he could convict them, but unhappily he cannot. A commission has been appointed to investigate and punish; but how can penal measures be taken against an entire people? With the exception of the wounded, I do not believe that fifty persons, males, could be found in the Cape, who did not participate in the plunder. Who dare inform against another? There is a saying here in frequent use, '*pas faire ennemi.*' No one is so fearful of offending a person in authority as the Haitien, a fact easily accounted for by the history of the people, and their present military form of government. I know a *marchand* who has lost from ten thousand to twelve thousand dollars in goods. He knows well who are the chief pillagers of his house; he mentioned their names publicly; yet, now, while the commission is sitting, he dares not denounce them. National honor, public morals, call for a salutary severity, but the call will be in vain. If ever there was a clear

case for compensation to be enforced in favor of foreigners by their respective Governments, it is this — a town given up for ten days to plunder; and officers and soldiers, who should be the protectors of the community, the very plunderers!

“Persons who had been buried under the ruins eight, ten, and twelve days, were dug out, and many recovered and are now alive. One was thirteen days in that situation, and is now well. It is astonishing how they could support, I will not say the pangs of hunger, but those of thirst, for such lengths of time. Yet such is undoubtedly the fact.

“For some months preceding the earthquake an unusual drought prevailed. The heavy periodical rains which usually set in towards the middle or end of April did not visit us; and with the exception of a few insignificant showers, we had no rain for nearly four months. The temperature was unusually high for the time of year. For a month previously the mercury stood at 90 degrees Fahrenheit in the shade for several hours in the day. I even noticed it at 92.

“The town of Cape Haitien, which you used to call the paradise of Haiti, termed by the French *colons* ‘petit Paris,’ perhaps the most beautiful and regularly built in the West Indies, with all its fine public edifices, is now a heap of ruins. The rich plains to the south, whence the old French drew their wealth, and where they left, it was some little time ago supposed, enduring monuments of their magnificence, — mansions that might well be called palaces, — sugar-houses, and all the appurtenances for colonial culture, — these plains have felt the shock as severely as the Cape. All the old mansions and plantation structures, churches, gateways, and columns, have fallen. The rents in the earth are very numerous, and some very wide. In many places sand, resembling sea-sand, has been forced up in large quantities. These rents in the plains, as well as those in and around the Cape, run nearly in a north and south direction.

“It is reported that the village of Marabarou, at the mouth of the river Massacre, has altogether disappeared, swallowed up by the sea. A lake has been formed in a savannah near the ruins of the old city of Isabella. The road from Port-au-Plate to St. Jago has in many places sunk down to a depth of twenty feet. The mountain that rises over the village of Alta Mira has been terribly shaken, and immense masses have slipped down into the deep ravines at its base. I have spoken to a gentleman who was not far from Alta Mira, on his way to Port-au-Plate, when the shock took place. Himself and horse were both thrown on the ground, though the ground itself was neither rent nor permanently displaced.

“Every stone and brick house in St. Jago has fallen. The town was partially pillaged. In St. Domingo several churches have fallen, and all the houses are rent and torn, so as to be uninhabitable. The old church of La Vega, built by Christopher Columbus, is down. Port-au-Plate, consisting chiefly of timber houses, has not much suffered. Port-au-Paix has fallen, causing about two hundred deaths. Gonaives did not suffer greatly from the shock, but fires ensued, and destroyed a good deal of property. Little injury was done at Port-au-Prince, though the movement was strongly felt there.”

ATLANTIC STEAM NAVIGATION.

THE following table exhibits the length of time in which each pass across the Atlantic, between Halifax and Liverpool, has been made by the four steam-ships of the British and North American Royal Mail packet Company. From this statement, it appears that the passage from Halifax gives 7.86 miles per hour, while that from Halifax to Liverpool (influenced by prevailing winds and currents,) gives 9.3 miles.

The mean between these may be taken as the average speed obtainable at sea, or what may be called the sea-rate. In this case the sea-rate is 8.58 miles per hour. It will be seen in our volume for 1837, p. 12, that the sea-rates of the *Atalanta* and *Berenice*, in those comparatively early days of steam navigation, varied from 6 to 9 1-2 miles, the average of all given being 7 1-2 miles. When it is considered that the passages of the British and North American line have been made across the stormy Atlantic, while those above quoted were at least two-thirds of them at moderate latitudes, there is every reason to congratulate the proprietors on the result.

Passage to and from Liverpool and Halifax of the British and North American Royal Mail Steam-ships, from July 4th, 1840, to June 4th, 1842.

Ship's names.	No. Voy.	Sailed from Liverpool	Passage.			
			Out.	Home.		
1840.			D.	H.	D.	H.
Britannia,	1	July 4	12	10	10	0
Acadia,	1	Aug. 5	11	4	11	0
Britannia,	2	Sept. 4	11	1	11	3
Caledonia,	1	Sept. 19	12	9	10	22
Acadia,	2	Oct. 4	11	5	12	4
Britannia,	2	Oct. 20	13	23	11	7
Caledonia,	2	Nov. 4	11	23	11	21
Acadia,	3	Dec. 4	14	17	10	16
1841.						
Columbia,	1	Jan. 5	13	3	12	0
Britannia,	4	Feb. 4	15	9	12	0
Caledonia,	3	March 4	14	0	10	19
Acadia,	4	March 20	16	33	12	38
Columbia,	3	April 4	13	3	11	15
Britannia,	5	April 20	13	17	11	1
Caledonia,	4	May 4	13	6	10	18
Acadia,	5	May 19	11	23	10	15
Columbia,	3	June 4	10	19	10	7
Britannia,	6	June 19	12	5	10	2
Caledonia,	5	July 4	11	15	10	11
Acadia,	6	July 20	10	22	9	27
Columbia,	4	Aug. 4	12	23	11	1
Britannia,	7	Aug. 19	12	20	11	23
Caledonia,	6	Sept. 4	11	19	10	21
Acadia,	7	Sept. 10	13	11	11	3
Columbia,	5	Oct. 5	13	19	10	26
Britannia,	8	Oct. 21	14	4	12	6
Caledonia,	7	Nov. 4	11	20	11	23
Acadia,	8	Nov. 19	15	15	11	8
Columbia,	6	Dec. 4	14	17	11	17

1842.

Britannia,	9	Jan. 4	14	12	11	3
Caledonia,	8	Feb. 4	p.	bk.		
Acadia,	9	Feb. 19	16	8	12	8
Columbia,	7	March 4	20	17	15	12
Britannia,	10	April 5	12	22	10	14
Caledonia,	8	April 19	13	21	10	18
Acadia,	10	May 4	14	18	10	8
Columbia,	8	May 19	11	22	9	17
Britannia,	11	June 4	11	17	10	10

Average Passage, by Chronometer : Out, 13 days 7 hours ; Home, 11 days 3 hours

THE SMOKELESS ARGAND FURNACE.

THE following information in reference to this invention is taken from the Reports of the late Meetings of the British Association at Manchester :

William Fairbairn, Esq., "On the Combustion of Coal, and other Fuels, with a view of obtaining the greatest calorific effect, and avoiding the generation of Smoke." The subject of this communication was arranged under four heads, the last division being "The best method of working the furnace."

The report proceeded to detail the results of some experiments on the comparative consumption of coal in a furnace to which Mr. Williams's apparatus for the prevention of smoke had been applied, when that apparatus was at work, and when it was thrown out of use. Some of these first experiments appeared to be vitiated by the want of a perfect closing of the air-passages when the apparatus was not used. Further experiments were, consequently, tried with the air-passages open at one time, and at another closed by a brick wall. The result was, that the average consumption with the apparatus at work was 276 pounds per hour, and with the air-passages effectually closed, 308 1-2 pounds per hour ; showing a difference of 32 1-2 pounds per hour in favor of Mr. Williams's plan, or a saving of rather more than ten per cent. The report stated, in conclusion, that there could not be the slightest doubt about the practicability of abating the nuisance of smoke, so much complained of in this and other districts.

Henry Houldsworth, Esq., said, that for six months past he had had practical experience of the working of Mr. Williams's patent, which he had applied to three different furnaces ; and he could now say confidently, from the results of that experience, that, without any particular trouble or care of management, it would prevent, at the very least, three fourths of the smoke which was now made. He did not doubt that other inventions might be effectual when they were carefully managed ; but he preferred Mr. Williams's, because of its extreme simplicity, depending as it did solely on the admission of air in a proper manner, without any of those mechanical contrivances, worked by some moving power, which

many other plans contained. There was one fact connected with Mr. Williams's patent, which he considered of some importance, which he would communicate to the section. He had that morning fitted up a contrivance for ascertaining the comparative temperature of flues under different circumstances, which had not previously been very satisfactorily ascertained. Mr. Williams had used a thermometer, inserted in a bar of iron, which was placed in a flue; but he (Mr. Houldsworth) was not satisfied with that plan, and had passed a copper wire through the flue from one end to the other. This was kept in a state of tension by a weight, and by its expansion or contraction, acted upon an index, which would give a very correct measure of the relative temperature. He had tried some experiments with it that morning, and had obtained very striking and important results. It had generally been supposed, that, when there was a perfectly red fire in the furnace, and when no smoke was generated, the admission of cold air at the bridge would do harm instead of good, by reducing the temperature in the flues. He had, however, tried the experiment that morning. After having the air-passages closed for some time, he had opened them when the coals on the fire were perfectly charred, and found an immediate and decided increase of temperature in the flue. The increase of temperature was certainly most striking if the air-passages were opened shortly after a large quantity of fresh fuel had been put on; but at all times he found there was an increase when the air was admitted, and a decrease when it was excluded. If any members of the Association would do him the favor to call at the works, he should have great pleasure in showing the apparatus and its working. Mr. Williams said, he was exceedingly glad to hear of Mr. Houldsworth's invention: a good pyrometer was very much wanted.

Henry Houldsworth, Esq. on a subsequent day said, that, since the discussion on this subject, he had made some careful experiments with the pyrometer which he then described, and the results were, in his judgment, exceedingly satisfactory and conclusive. These experiments were made upon a furnace fitted up according to Mr. Williams's patent, by putting three cwt. of coal upon the fire two different times, the fire being each time in the same state, and the temperature of the flue, as indicated by the pyrometer, being, in each case, about 700 degrees. On one occasion the air-passages were left open, in the other they were closed; in each case the experiment was continued for 100 minutes. In the experiment in which the passages were left open, the average temperature of the flue was about 1,100 degrees; in that in which the passages were closed, and Mr. Williams's apparatus thrown out of use, the temperature averaged only about 900 degrees. During the whole time of the former experiment there was an entire absence of smoke; during great part of the latter the flues were filled with smoke. Mr. Houldsworth exhibited a diagram showing, in a very striking manner, the results of his experiments. Mr. Fairbairn said, there could be no doubt whatever that smoke might be most effectually prevented, and, therefore, the public ought no longer to be subjected to the grievous nuisance which now too extensively prevailed.

NEW PATENT COMPOSING MACHINE.

THERE was exhibited in London, at 110 Chancery-lane, about the middle of June, a new patent composing machine, which will, there can be little doubt, at no distant period, work an entire revolution in the composing portion of the printing trade. It is the invention of Messrs. Young and Delcambre, the inventors of a somewhat similar, but comparatively imperfect machine, described in the public journals about twelve months since. The machine itself has a great resemblance to a cottage piano, with the external frame-work removed. It has 72 channels, containing a complete font of type, under which are placed levers in connection with keys similar to those of the piano, each key having engraved on it its character, which corresponds with the channels above, in which the different letters are placed. As the letters are moved out of the channels by the action of the player, they slide through various curves on an inclined plane at the back of the machine, and fall to one point, where they are received into a spout and beaten forward to a composing-stick, or, as it is called by the machinist, a justifying box, by a very ingenious mechanical movement. The justifying-box is at the end of a receiving-spout, and the type is drawn into it in lines of the width of the page to be set up; and when the usual number of lines have been justified, the box is emptied into a galley in the way that the compositor empties his composing-stick. While this "setting up" of the type, as the printers term it, but which here is in reality "letting down," is going on, the channels are being fed by two boys. The rapidity with which this machine gets through its work may be judged of from the fact, that type equal to half a column of this (the Morning Herald) journal was justified in a few minutes less than an hour; that is, as fast as the reporter usually transcribes his notes. At this machine there are eight persons employed, three intelligent young women, and five boys. The first are alternately engaged two hours each in composing, justifying, and correcting. The same system obtains with the boys, one of whom turns the wheel before spoken of; two, as has been stated, fill the channels; and two distribute the type. A clever compositor will set up 2,000 letters in an hour, but the average is about 1,500 or 1,600 letters. The young women whom we saw compose at the machine have, as they stated to us, been learning for about three months; and the average rate at which they *justify*, for we observed that the composer was sometimes *too quick* for the justifier, is about 6,000 letters per hour. With nine or twelve months' practice they will very likely be able to compose at the rate of 8,000 or 9,000 per hour. The cost of composing by this machine was stated to us to be 2d. per thousand; and, from the rate at which the machine composed, and the wages which we ascertained were paid to those employed, we entertain no doubt that such is the fact. The movements of the machine are extremely simple and beautiful, and, the whole of it being composed of steel and brass, it will work for years without getting out of order. One of these machines works three sorts of type. The only objection that struck us was, that the constant friction of the letters down the brass

channels, after they are struck out by the action of the composer, *not* be injurious to the type. The machine was worked by *clean, dry type*: what would be the effect of working with the usual letter of a morning paper? — *London Morning Herald*.

GOA.

ANOTHER of the revolutionary changes, to which the Portuguese colonies have, during some years, been subject, has taken place at Goa. The Governor, Senor de Lima, has been compelled to resign. The causes of this act are thus stated :

It appears that the Governor of Macao having, in consequence of the disturbed state of affairs in China, asked for additional troops, the Governor of Goa, in whom is vested the supreme power over all the Portuguese colonies of the East, expressed a wish to send thither a portion of a battalion of Europeans, whose presence in Goa was disagreeable to him. In order to get completely rid of them, he named their chief officer, Major Mascarenhas, to the situation of Governor of Timor, whither all those soldiers of the battalion, not required at Macao, were ordered to proceed. The battalion embarked on board the corvette *Infante Regente*, but soon exhibited the most unruly disposition, and declared that they had been enlisted to serve in India, and not in China, or the savage islands. Their insubordination induced the officer having command to come ashore, to impart the intelligence to the Governor, De Lima.

Upon the departure of that officer the soldiers seized the boat of the corvette and went also ashore. Confusion ensued ; other troops were called on to move on Pangim, in order to quell the mutiny ; but, after various parleys, and a long deliberation on the part of the council, the Governor, De Lima, against whose life some threats were stated to have been uttered, becoming highly alarmed, thought proper to resign his post. Another governor, *ad interim*, has been named in his stead ; all was said to be tranquil at Goa at the time of the departure of the last mail. Senhor de Lima embarked with his family on board the corvette *Infante Regente*, and is now coming to Bombay, with the intention of proceeding to Europe. — *Bombay Gazette*, May 9.

CHRONOLOGY.

FOREIGN.

ST. PETERSBURGH, June 2. **THE WAR IN THE CAUCASUS.** It is now no secret, that Prince Czernitscheff himself takes the command in chief of the army in the Caucasus, to make an effort to overcome, with a very great superiority of force, the insurgents of Circassia and Abchasia. The contest, as it has hitherto been carried on, was evidently too much protracted, and cost the Russians too much blood without indemnifying them by a corresponding advantage. They have, indeed, always been victorious in the summer in this sanguinary warfare, but regularly lost every winter by surprise several of the forts erected in the extreme line of operations, and at the opening of every new campaign they have had to employ much time and labor to recover what they already possessed the year before. The Russians have undoubtedly confined the mountaineers within narrow limits, yet competent judges are of opinion, that if the same system of operations were continued, the war might last years more.

Two circumstances are supposed to have led to the resolution to endeavor to end the war at once by the employment of great masses of troops: the state of affairs in South Asia, and the death of Guz Bey, the most dangerous of the Circassian chiefs. Russia certainly cannot be an indifferent spectator of the events that are preparing in Central Asia, and yet all its enterprises in that quarter are paralysed, as long as it has an enemy always ready for action in the Caucasus.

Guz Bey, who is dead, was the most enterprising of all the Princes of the mountains, and the present chiefs, Manior and Tschannazare, are said to be at variance, so that there seems to be a favorable opportunity to subdue them, to which the religious animosity of the Christian and Mahomedan tribes may contribute. Travellers from South Russia say, that there is a great movement of troops, and all are confident of success, especially because Czernitscheff, the Rus-

sian Blucher, is at the head, and Grabbe, who is thoroughly acquainted with the grand community, under him; nevertheless, the issue is problematical, for in such contests all calculations may be defeated by the slightest unforeseen accident, as happened in Perowski's ominous expedition. Meantime, to prevent the mountaineers from receiving any supplies of arms and ammunition, Russian ships strictly blockade the whole coast from Sinops (the seat of the English agents) to Anapa, Ickaterinodar, Kawkaskaja, and Stawropol, on the right bank of the Kuban. The Leghrans on the right bank of the Terek are no longer dreaded, but the Abchasians are said to have collected in the neighborhood of Sochunkule. Perhaps the Russians may succeed, by skilfully taking advantage of the ground, in isolating some of the tribes, and then they will have the game in their hands.

MADRID, June 17. The official Gazette announces this morning the formation of the new Ministry, on the basis we published last month.

General Rodil, Minister of War and President of the Council.

Count Almodovar, Foreign Affairs.

Zumalacarrgui, Minister of Justice.

Ramon Calatrava, (Senator,) Minister of Finance.

Capaz, (Senator,) Minister of Marine.

Torrez Solanot, Minister of Interior.

DRESDEN, June 27. **THE ELBE.** In consequence of the long-continued drought, the Elbe is so low that our steamers cannot move; but the Bohemia steamer, drawing much less water, still continues to ply. Many ships with cargoes are aground; the Bohemian ships pass, but very lightly loaded; and our vessels laden with free-stone, which could meet with a good market at Hamburg, cannot come down the river. This gradual decrease in the water would have given a favorable opportunity to improve the navigation of the Elbe. The commissioners who are to meet may convince themselves by personal inspection that it is high time to make every exertion to remove the obstruction to the navigation

of this great German river, which is above 700 miles in length.

LONDON, June 30. **TREATIES BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND TEXAS.** The ratifications of the long-pending treaties between Great Britain and Texas were exchanged at two o'clock on Tuesday, by the Earl of Aberdeen, Plenipotentiary of Great Britain, and the Hon. Ashbel Smith, Plenipotentiary of the republic of Texas. These treaties are three in number: A treaty of amity, navigation and commerce, a treaty undertaking mediation by G. Britain between the republics of Mexico and Texas, and a treaty granting reciprocal right of search for the suppression of the African slave trade. They were negotiated in 1840, and concluded in November of that year, by Viscount Palmerston and Gen. Jas. Hamilton. The powers to ratify the first two have been a considerable time in England, but their completion has been very properly delayed until the ratifications of the treaty granting the right of search could be simultaneously exchanged. By the treaty relative to Mexico, Great Britain offers her mediation between Mexico and Texas on the following condition:—Texas to assume £1,000,000 sterling of the public debt of Mexico, provided that state recognizes the independence of the new republic, and agrees to a satisfactory adjustment of the boundary line between the two countries. The proffered mediation of Great Britain between Mexico and Texas will, it is to be hoped, be productive of immediate peace between those countries.

THE BRUCE MANUSCRIPTS. Much interest is excited, among men of letters and oriental scholars more particularly, by the approaching sale of the above extraordinary collection, announced at auction in London. It is divided into three lots, classified as the Ethiopic MSS., the Arabic, and the Coptic. The first of these consist of twenty-five volumes, the second seventy volumes, and the third is a single MS. of seventy-six leaves of small folio of papyrus. The age of this MS. is not ascertained; but it is a gnostic work of the second century of Christianity, or the early part of the third. It was found in some ruins near Thebes, and its language, subject, and materials are equally unique. The language is the Saidic or Theban dialect of the Coptic, now obsolete, but which was that of the Pharaohs, and survived the period of the Persian and Grecian conquests. The col-

lection includes the Gospels, Epistles and Acts of the Apostles, in Ethiopic; the Song of Solomon, in all the Abyssinian dialects, with a vocabulary to each; the celebrated Chronicle of Axum, and the History of Habbesh, in five volumes, as well as varieties of historical, religious, scientific, and poetical literature.

LONDON, July 1. **NEWSPAPER STAMPS AND ADVERTISEMENTS.** From a return laid before the House of Commons, it appears that, since the reduction of the stamp duty on newspapers in 1837, the number of newspapers published in the United Kingdom has been nearly doubled. In 1836, when the stamp was 4d. for each paper, the total number of stamps issued was 35,576,056; and in the year ending March 31, 1842, it had increased to 41,495,503. In the former year the amount of duty was £443,278, while in the latter it was £253,779, showing a gradual increase since 1837, when the duty was £217,480. The number of advertisements in 1836 was 1,432,612, and the duty £103,248; while in 1841 they had increased respectively to 1,776,957, and £128,318. The increase in the number of stamps issued has taken place chiefly on papers published in Great Britain; will be seen from the following returns: Stamps for Irish papers in 1836, 5,144,522; in 1841, 5,986,639. English papers for the same years, 27,777,036 and 49,674,438. Scotch papers for the same years, 2,684,438 and 5,388,079.

THE NIGER EXPEDITION. Captain Walters, of the ship William Canynge, arrived at Bristol, on Monday last from Cape Coast Castle, (west coast of Africa) which place he left on the 22d of March, brings some interesting information respecting the Niger Expedition. The following is an extract from Captain Walters' report:

"The William Canynge sailed from Cape Coast Castle on the 22d of March. At Cape Coast Castle were her Majesty's ship Madagascar and the steam-packet Wilberforce, attached to the Niger Expedition. This vessel (Wilberforce) arrived on the 20th of March from the Island of Ascension, on her way to Fernando Po, whence she was to proceed, in company with the Soudan steamer, on a second attempt to ascend the Niger. With the exception of one case of dysentery, all on board the Wilberforce were in tolerable health.

"The Wilberforce brought accounts from the Island of Ascension as late as

March 10. At that time the island was healthy, and most of the invalids from the Niger Expedition had sufficiently recovered from fever to allow of their being invalided to return to England. One death had occurred among them while in hospital at Ascension.

"The Albert remained at Ascension, undergoing a refit.

"The Gold Coast had been visited lately by a swarm of locusts, which had done much damage among the corn. &c.

"The Ashantee Mission had been established under favorable circumstances, and the two princes, Quantamissah and Ausah, were residing with the Rev. Mr. Brooking, at Coomassie.

"Captain Stanley, late 2d West India Regiment, and Lieutenant Fairholme, invalided from the Soudan, passengers (per William Canynge) from Cape Coast.

LIVERPOOL, July 1. THE IRON STEAM FRIGATE GUADALOUPE. This beautiful vessel made an experimental trip to sea on Tuesday last. Several naval and nautical men were of the party on board. She left her moorings at the Sloyne shortly after 11 o'clock, and ran out about twenty miles beyond the Northwest Lightship. Her performances equalled the most sanguine expectations which had been formed. Under steam alone, she made ten knots an hour; and eleven to twelve under canvass and steam; thus establishing beyond doubt her excellent steaming and sailing qualities. Her armament consists of two 68-pounders, on pivots. These were fired, and, notwithstanding their heavy calibre, produced scarcely any shake in the vessel. Indeed, the naval men said that the vibration caused by the discharge of these huge guns was less than usual on board vessels. The whole party, naval and nautical men included, expressed themselves very much pleased with the speed and other qualities of the ship. The objects of the trip having been thus satisfactorily accomplished, the Guadalupe returned to her moorings in the evening.

The Guadalupe is the largest vessel yet built by Mr. John Laird, the celebrated iron ship-builder at Birkenhead. Her dimensions, as we last week stated, are 153 feet long and 30 feet 1 inch beam; the tonnage, 765. Her engines, of 150-horse power, are from the manufactory of Messrs. G. Forrester & Co., of Vauxhall-road, and are fine specimens of skill, ingenuity, and efficiency.

Yesterday afternoon the Guadalupe proceeded to sea. She cleared out for the Havana, but that is not her destination. A mystery is affected respecting her real one.

PARIS, June 29. THE FRENCH POST. A convention has been agreed on between the French and Neapolitan Governments for the transmission of passengers and letters direct from Marseilles to Naples. The conveyance of letters between these two cities now requires eight days, but by the new arrangement will be performed in five. The estafettes which ran between Naples and Marseilles during the reign of Joachim Murat performed the distance in five days.

PARIS, July 12. DEATH OF THE DUKE OF ORLEANS; Prince Royal and Heir-Apparent of the Crown of France. The following are the details of this calamity, as given in Galignani's Messenger: At 12 o'clock this day, the Duke of Orleans was to leave Paris for St. Omer, where he was to inspect several regiments intended for the corps of operation on the Marne. His equipages were ordered and his attendants in readiness. Every preparation was made at the Pavilion Marsan for the journey, after which his royal highness was to join the Duchess of Orleans at Plombieres. At eleven the Prince got into a carriage, intending to go to Neuilly to take leave of the king and queen and the royal family. This carriage was a four-wheeled cabriolet, or caleche, drawn by two horses a la demi-Daumont, that is, driven by a postilion. It was the conveyance usually taken by the Prince when going short distances round Paris. He was quite alone, not having suffered one of his officers to accompany him. On arriving near the Porte Maillot, the horse rode by the postilion took fright, and broke into a gallop. The carriage was soon taken with great velocity up the Chemin de la Revolte. The Prince, seeing that the postilion was unable to master the horses, put his foot on the step, which was very near the ground, and jumped down on the road, when about half-way along the road which runs direct from the Porte Maillot. The Prince touched the road with both feet, but the impulse was so great that he staggered and fell with his head on the pavement. The effect of the fall was terrible, for his royal highness remained senseless on the spot. Persons instantly ran to his assistance and carried him into a grocer's by

the way-side, a short distance off, opposite Lord Seymour's stables. In the mean time, the postilion succeeded in getting command over his horses, turned the carriage round, and came to the door of the house where the Prince was lying. His royal highness never recovered his senses. He was placed on a bed in a room on the ground floor, and surgical assistance was sent for. Dr. Baume, a physician in the neighborhood, was the first who came. He bled the royal sufferer, but this produced no good effect. The news of the accident was conveyed to Neuilly. The Queen immediately set out on foot, and the King followed her. His Majesty was to be at Paris at twelve o'clock, to hold a Council of Ministers. His carriages, which were ready, soon overtook their Majesties, who entered them, with Madame Adelaide and the Princess Clementine. They proceeded to the house into which the Duke of Orleans had been taken. He, by that time, was nearly lifeless. It may be easy to imagine, but it will be impossible for any one to describe, the grief of their Majesties and Royal Highnesses at the spectacle they beheld. Dr. Pasquier, junior, the Prince Royal's first surgeon, had just arrived. Soon afterwards the Dukes d'Aumale and Montpensier came from Courbevoie and Vincennes. Dr. Pasquier was very soon compelled to announce that the case was of the most serious nature, for every symptom showed that there was an effusion on the brain, and every minute the evil seemed to increase. A few words pronounced by the Prince in the German language gave a momentary hope, but this as quickly vanished. Marshal Soult, Marshal Gerard, the Ministers of Justice, Foreign Affairs, the Interior, the Marine, Finances, and Public Works arrived, and were admitted into the death-bed chamber of the royal duke. The Chancellor, the Prefect of Police, Generals Pajol and Aupick, with the officers of the households of their Majesties and Princes, hastened to the spot, and remained outside the house in a space kept clear by sentinels stationed around. At two o'clock, as the case became more and more desperate, the King sent for the Duchess de Nemours, who had remained at Neuilly. She came, attended by her ladies in waiting. No pen can paint the afflicting scene presented by the chamber when the Duchess de Nemours came, and added her tears to the rest of the fam-

ily. The Queen and Princesses were on their knees by the bedside, praying and bathing with their tears the hands of the departing son and brother, so intensely beloved. The Princes were speechless and sobbing almost to suffocation. The King stood by, silent and motionless, watching, with painful anxiety, every fluctuation in the countenance of the expiring heir. Outside the house the crowd continued every minute to increase, every one overwhelmed with consternation. The Curé of Neuilly and his clergy immediately obeyed the King's summons, and came to Sablonville. Under the influence of powerful medicines the agony of the dying Prince was prolonged. Life withdrew but very slowly, and not without struggling powerfully against the utter destruction of so much youthful strength. For a moment respiration became more free, and the beating of the pulse was perceptible. As the slightest hopes are grasped at by hearts torn with despair, this scene of desolation was interrupted by a momentary gleam, but the gleam soon passed away. At two o'clock the Prince showed the unequivocal symptoms of departing life, and in another half-hour he rendered his soul to God, dying in the arms of his King and father, who, at the last moment, pressed his lips on the forehead of his lost child, hallowed by the tears of his afflicted mother, and the sobs and lamentations of the whole of his family. The Prince being dead, the King drew the Queen into an adjoining room, where the Ministers and Marshals assembled, threw themselves at her feet, and endeavored to offer her consolation. Her Majesty exclaimed, "What a dreadful misfortune has fallen upon our family, but how much greater is it for France!" Her voice was then stopped by her sobs and tears. The King, seeing Marshal Gerard absorbed in grief, took his hand, pressed it with an expression showing his sense of his bereavement, but, at the same time, a firmness and magnanimity truly royal. The mortal remains of the Prince were placed on a litter covered with a white sheet. The Queen refused to get into the carriage, declaring her resolution to follow the corpse of her son to the chapel at Neuilly, where she wished it to be carried. Consequently, a company of the 17th Light Infantry was hastily marched down from Courbevoie to line the procession on each side, and thus those brave men

who had shared with the Prince Royal in all the dangers of the passage of the Iron Gates and the heights of Mouzaia, in Africa, served as the escort of his now lifeless body. Several of the men wept, and called back to their minds the brilliant valor with which the Duke of Orleans had assailed the enemy, and, at the time, the mild and delicate beneficence with which he had ever tempered the necessary rigor of command. At five o'clock the mournful procession moved towards the chapel at Neuilly. General Athalin walked at the head of the bier, which was carried by four non-commissioned officers. Behind followed the King, Queen, Princess Adelaide, Duchess de Nemours, Princess Clementine, Duke d'Aumale, and Duke de Montpensier. Then came Marshals Soult and Gerard, the Ministers, the General Officers, the household of the King and Princes, and an immense number of other persons. The sad and solemn procession moved along the Avenue de Sablonville, and, crossing the old Neuilly road, entered the royal park, and traversed its whole length to the chapel. Here their Majesties, and Princes and Princesses, after prostrating themselves before the altar, left their beloved child and brother under the guardianship of God. In the evening the Royal family remained in seclusion, except that the King conferred with his ministers. At 7 o'clock M. Bertin de Vaux, one of the deceased Prince's orderly officers, and M. Chomel, who was his Royal Highness's first physician, set out for Plombieres, where the Duchess of Orleans was taking the waters. Amidst all their own affliction, during this disastrous day, the thought of the deprivation sustained by this unfortunate Princess was never out of the minds of her Royal relations, and her name was repeatedly invoked in their lamentations. At length it was resolved that the Duchess de Nemours and the Princess Clementine should go to her with letters from the King and Queen. Their royal highnesses commenced their journey at 9 o'clock, attended by Mademoiselle Angelet and General de Rumigny. A courier was despatched to the Duke de Nemours, and another to Toulon, with orders for a steamer to be despatched to the coast of Sicily, where it is believed the squadron of Admiral Hugon now is, and, consequently, the Prince de Joinville will be found.

The Duke of Orleans was born at Pa-
32*

lermo, on the 2d of September, 1810, showing him to have just reached the age of 32 at his death. His mother, Marie Amelie, the present Queen of the French, is daughter of Ferdinand, King of the Two Sicilies, and whom Louis Philippe espoused at the time that he was wandering abroad as plain Duc d'Orleans.

The departed duke was one of a family of seven children, to whom Marie Amelie has ever been warmly attached. The Duke de Nemours, Louis Philippe's second son, was born at Paris, on the 25th of October, 1814.

The duke married, on 30th January, 1837, a princess of the house of Mecklenburg Schwerin. The marriage was celebrated at the Palace of Fontainebleau and in the splendid gallery of Henry the Second. By this lady his royal highness has left two sons, the Count of Paris, born August 24, 1838, and the Duke of Chartres, born November 9, 1840.

LIVERPOOL, July 13. The greatest triumph of steam navigation yet accomplished was achieved by the British and North American royal mail steamer Columbia, which made the voyage from Boston to Liverpool (including a stoppage of several hours at Halifax), in 11 days and 12 hours. The Great Western, too, made a splendid run across the Atlantic. She sailed from New York on the same day that the Columbia left Boston, and, notwithstanding a deviation of 200 miles to the south to avoid the ice, made the passage to Bristol in 12 days and 12 hours. She had on board 99 passengers.

TEXAS, July 21. Congress adjourned, having passed a bill authorizing offensive war against Mexico. This bill, however, was vetoed by the President, on the ground that the Republic had no means to support such a war, and that Congress had no constitutional power to pass such an act.

DOMESTIC.

PENNSYLVANIA. The legislature adjourned on the 26th of July *sine die*, after its extra session, which had been held for the purpose of dividing the state into districts for the choice of members of Congress. The two Houses had great difficulty in agreeing with each other upon any plan for this purpose, and it was not till the 23d of July, that upon the report of a committee of conference, a bill was passed. The legislature also adopted some measures for raising a tax for the

payment of debts now due to contractors and other persons who have performed labor on account of the public works. It failed, however, to provide for the interest due on the public stocks on the 1st of July.

After the adjournment, it appeared that Governor Porter did not approve of the districting bill, and had withheld from it his signature. A circular was addressed to the sheriffs of the different counties, informing them of this fact, so that no elections for members of Congress can be held this year in Pennsylvania. The duty of devising a scheme for the districting of the state will devolve upon the next legislature, at its regular session next winter.

At this session, the committee on education, appointed to "inquire into the expediency of making such an amendment to the school law, as will provide for raising an amount of tax in each school district, equal to the state appropriation for common schools in the said district," made a report, from which it appeared, not only that the greater proportion of the sum appropriated for the support of education by common schools, &c. in the commonwealth, is raised by a mode equivalent to direct taxation, but that the distribution is very unequal in several counties, in proportion to their contributions.

A tabular statement annexed to the report shows that the whole amount appropriated to colleges, academies, and female seminaries in the state, is \$54,900, and to common schools, \$393,197, making in all \$448,097. Deducting from this sum, \$68,197 for non-accepting districts, the actual appropriation is \$379,900.

"The table also exhibits the remarkable fact, that in thirty-four counties, the appropriation for school purposes exceeds the whole amount of state tax assessed in those counties, in the sum of \$75,278, being in some of them double and even treble the amount. The other counties, of course, pay the excess. Unless, therefore, the taxation and distribution can be more nearly equalized, it would appear that the latter must be exceedingly unjust."

The committee recommended that each district be allowed to provide for its own means of education, until a fund can be created for the purpose.

The average time, through which the schools were kept open in 1841, was 5 months and 7 days.

RHODE ISLAND, Aug. 8. Governor King issued a proclamation to the people announcing that in order to enable the people to proceed without restraint in the discharge of the important duties soon to come before them in the choice of delegates to the convention for the preparation of a new constitution [see Mon. Chron. p. 235,] martial law would be suspended until the first of September. In an address published at the same time, he congratulated the citizens of the state "on the fortunate termination of the late dangerous crisis," and thanked them for the prompt manner in which they assembled in arms for the support of their government. He stated that no arrests had recently been made under martial law, and that no persons were then detained by its authority. At the same time he warned the military of the necessity of their holding themselves in readiness to obey promptly any command made upon them by the proper officers.

ELECTIONS.

ILLINOIS, August 1. The election in this State for officers of the State government took place. Governor Ford, the democratic candidate, was re-elected by a majority of about 7,000 votes over Mr. Duncan, his Whig competitor. There will also be as heretofore a Democratic majority in both branches of the legislature. By the constitution of this State the Governor and Senate are chosen for four years, the House of Representatives once in two years.

ALABAMA, August 1. The election in this State for members of the State Assembly took place. The result was a decided Democratic majority, as in the past year. By the constitution of this State the Assembly is chosen annually, the Governor for a term of two, and the Senators for a term of three years.

KENTUCKY, August 1. The election for members of the State House of Representatives took place. The result was the election of a decided Whig majority, as the past year. Independently of political divisions, however, the State was divided between parties which styled themselves Relief and Anti-Relief men, the former having for their object some temporary amelioration of the laws of attachments, and similar measures which they suppose may relieve the pecuniary embarrassments of the times. They appear to have elected a small majority of

the members. By the constitution of this State the members of the Assembly are chosen annually, the Governor and Senators for terms of four years.

INDIANA, August 1. The election for members of the State House of Representatives and of Senators in place of those whose terms of office expire this year took place. The result was a Whig Senate and a Democratic House. The Senate last year was Whig, 28 to 21; the House Democratic, 54 to 46. By the constitution of this State, the Representatives are chosen annually, the Governor and Senators once in three years, one third of the Senators retiring each year.

MISSOURI, Aug. 1. The election in this State for members of the House of Representatives of the state took place. The result was the election of a House, a large majority of which was of the Democratic party. The character of the last House was the same. By the constitution of this State, the Representatives are chosen once in two years, the Governor and Senators once in four years.

NORTH CAROLINA, August 4. The election in this State for officers of the State government took place. Governor Morehead, the Whig candidate, was re-elected by a majority of about 4,000 votes over Mr. Henry, his Democratic competitor. A Democratic legislature was chosen, there being a majority of that party both in the Senate and in the House of Commons; in the last legislature the Whigs had the majority in both branches. By the constitution of this State the Governor and Legislature are chosen for terms of two years.

UNITED STATES CONGRESS.

The last month has witnessed the completion of most of the measures of the second session of the twenty-seventh Congress. The session was prolonged to an unusual extent, but notwithstanding the heat of the weather, the amount of business transacted during the month is very large, larger than has been usual at any period of a session.

No final action was taken on the resolution reported by a select committee on the President's qualified approbation of the apportionment bill, [see p. 335.] The House, with which that committee originated, and by whom the expression of opinion contemplated in the resolution would have been made, took up the resolution and debated it once

or twice, without, as we have said, any final action.

The appropriation bills, to which we have already alluded as being delayed by the disagreement of the two branches on their details, [see pp. 288 and 336,] were finally so arranged by committees of conference as to pass both branches. The Naval Appropriation passed in both Houses, on the 30th of July. The Army Appropriation passed the Senate on the 1st, and the House on the 16th of August. The contingent appropriation bill, which provided in detail for all those branches of the civil service which have hitherto been ranked under a head of "contingencies" or "miscellanies" in the civil appropriation bill also had its final passage on the 24th of the month. This miscellaneous item had been struck out from the civil appropriation bill on its passage, [see p. 240,] on the ground that such an appropriation of money led to a tax and imprudent expenditure of it. All the appropriation bills, as finally arranged by the two Houses, make a considerable reduction of the government expenses from the basis of last year, and from that at first proposed by the several executive departments, and the committees of the House.

The bill for a new organization and reduction of the army, introduced into the Senate, [see p. 287,] so that there might be some regularity in the reduction of the expenses of the army, which had been made necessary by the change of the army appropriation, passed the House on the 16th, in a form reported by a committee of conference. This committee had been appointed in consequence of a disagreement between the two branches on the provisions of this bill. In all of its several disagreements with the Senate, the House desired to carry out the reductions in the several branches of the public service to a greater extent than the Senate thought expedient, and they were arranged on a conference in every instance, by the surrender by each branch of a part of the clauses on which it had disagreed.

The desire for a retrenchment of government expenses took another form in the House. In the latter part of July, Mr. Arnold of Tennessee introduced a proposal for the reduction of the mileage and per diem of members of Congress, and of the pay of some other officers. The proposal excited debate, and numerous pro-

jects for amendment, and was finally on the 28th of July referred with the amendments to a special committee. This committee, on the 30th, reported a bill reducing the per diem two dollars, reducing the mileage and deducting from the salaries of all officers of government who receive more than \$1,000 twenty-five per cent. of their salaries, and deducting fifteen per cent. from those who receive smaller amounts. This bill was referred to committee of the whole, and thus ended for the time a debate which had occupied several days. No final action has ever been taken upon it.

In the Senate, Mr. Walker asked leave on the 1st of August to introduce a bill, reducing the term of residence necessary for the naturalization of an alien from five to two years. The Senate, however, refused to grant leave, and there this subject rested.

The war against the Indians in Florida being nearly, if not quite ended, the bill for the occupation of that peninsula by armed settlers was pressed through, in order to encourage such settlements as might restrict the ravages of the few Indians yet remaining there. The bill originated in the Senate; some time since it passed the House in an amended form, and the Senate concurred in these amendments, and passed the bill on the 1st of the month.

A bill regulating enlistments in the army and navy also passed the Senate on the 30th of July. Its most prominent provision was one prohibiting the enlistment of any colored persons, either slaves or freemen, into either service. This bill went through its preliminary stages in the House, but no final action on it was taken.

The Senate also passed a bill providing for the reorganization of the Navy Department. It was believed that this bill, although making a slight increase in the expenses of the management of the department, would produce great economy in the different branches of the service. It abolished the Board of Navy Commissioners, substituting for it several bureaux, by a plan similar to that now in operation in the war department. These are the bureaux of navy yards and docks, of construction, equipment and repairs, of provisions and clothing, of ordnance and hydrography, of medicine and surgery. This bill passed the Senate on the 6th of August.

Several other bills passed the Senate

with the object of improving the condition of the Navy. Such were a bill providing that the Secretary of the Navy may put officers on half pay at his pleasure, if the good of the service seem to him to require; the bill providing for a naval academy for midshipmen; a bill providing for deficiencies in the navy pension fund, which had also passed the House, and after some amendments in the Senate, became a law. One or two similar bills were acted upon in the House. We have named all of importance, however. The House showed a similar disposition to improve the organization of the Navy, and the bill for the remodelling of the department, and many of the other bills, became laws, after discussion in that body.

In the House, a bill providing for the organization of the House at the opening of every Congress, was discussed and passed on the 6th of August. It provides that every officer, authorized by the respective state laws to make the final canvass of votes for representatives to Congress, shall make returns to the clerk of the House; and that that officer from such returns, or in default of such returns, from such information as he can collect, shall make out the list of the members to be used in organization; but if any members be returned in such manner as to contravene the provisions of the recent apportionment act, [see p. 267.] their names shall not be placed upon such list, and they shall not vote in the organization of the House.

The Senate made some material amendments to the bill, and passed it on the 29th of the month. These amendments affected the application of the bill to all the representatives to the next Congress, granting an exemption in behalf of states whose legislatures had no opportunity of amending the present system of districts. They met with some opposition in the House, but, on the 30th, after an arrangement made by a committee of conference, the bill passed. This bill, however, failed of becoming a law, for want of the signature of the President, it being presented to him on the last day but one of the session, and not being returned by him to the House in which it originated.

On the 12th of August, the House ordered the fortification bill to be engrossed. This bill appropriated about \$250,000 to such expenses of the year 1842 as were necessary for repairs. In view of the possibility of an alarming deficit in reve-

nue, however, the House then laid the bill on the table, that if, before the end of the session no revenue bill should pass, the treasury might not be burdened with this demand. After the tariff had passed the House, however, this bill was taken up again, and passed on the 25th of the month.

A great number of private bills, granting to different claimants on Government the amount of their demands, passed in the course of the month. There were also several public bills, which are not of such interest in themselves, and did not excite such attention in Congress as to need mention here.

The great centre of interest in the Congressional and Executive proceedings through the month was the action on the revenue bill. This bill, which had already passed the House, [see p. 336.] was debated at length in the Senate, where all its details were examined and discussed. All the amendments proposed in the Senate, both by the committee on finance, and by individual members, were rejected, and the bill passed the upper branch in the same form as it had passed the House, on the 5th of August. The vote upon it was 25 to 23; there were two members absent, and two vacancies, Tennessee being unrepresented in the Senate through the whole session. The bill was signed by the proper officers of the Senate and House, and sent to the President on the 6th.

On the 9th of the month, he returned it with his objections, to the House, the branch in which it originated. The veto message began by expressing the regret which the President felt at being obliged to exercise his constitutional prerogative, in thus arresting the passage of this bill. He reminded the House, however, that the exercise of some independence of judgment in regard to all acts of legislation, was plainly implied in the responsibility of approving them. The duty of such an exercise of judgment became most solemn in a case where such complex and various interests were at stake as those involved in the revenue bill.

He proceeded to remind the House that his recommendation of a distribution among the states of the proceeds of the land sales, in his message at the opening of the extra session, [see Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 328,] was made under the impression, received from Mr. Ewing's treasury report, that the revenue under the compromise tariff would be sufficient

for the government expenses, with such additions of duties below 20 per cent. as Mr. Ewing proposed to Congress to make, and that he only recommended that distribution in case those impressions as to the amount of revenue were realized; that, with a similar view, apparently, Congress had passed the distribution act, [see Mon. Chr. Vol. II. p. 384,] with a clause providing for its suspension in case of any augmentation of duties above 20 per cent. ad valorem.

The anticipations on which the bill was founded were not realized. It appeared soon after its passage, that the financial embarrassments of the country would greatly reduce the revenue, and the President had felt compelled, therefore, to recommend an increase in the rates of duties, [see Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 503, Vol. III. p. 144,] and a restoration of the land fund to the national treasury, [see p. 192.] He had communicated these opinions to Congress, in the hope of preventing any collision between the legislature and the executive. In that hope, however, he was disappointed, by the passage of the provisional revenue bill, [see p. 287,] which he had consequently been obliged to disapprove. In the message accompanying it on its return, he had stated that he regarded it as an indispensable requisite to an increase of duties above twenty per cent., that the provision of the distribution act, as it passed, should remain unchanged.

This requisite was not contained in the revenue bill, which had just passed Congress. He was therefore obliged to return it to the House.

His reasons, besides such as he had urged in his former Message, were three.

First. He thought the bill united two entirely incongruous subjects. It was both a revenue bill and an appropriation bill. The custom of uniting in the same bill dissimilar subjects was destructive of wise legislation, and imposed an improper restraint on the Executive.

Second. He thought it wrong to turn from the Treasury any available funds at the present time, when it was nearly exhausted. Here the President presented an exhibit of the state of the Treasury on the 5th inst., showing that there was then an available amount for current expenses of only \$970,000, while there were requisitions of the Navy Department to the amount of \$1,414,000 yet unpaid. To replenish this treasury and meet requisitions from the army department and the

civil list, there was only about \$100,000 of unissued treasury notes, and the weekly income of about \$150,000. The withdrawal of the land money, therefore, embarrassed the treasury seriously, while it gave the states but little relief; and he feared that Government might be reduced to the melancholy necessity of selling its stock much below par in order to meet its obligations.

Third. He thought that the union of the subjects of tariff and distribution was a serious evil, because it made the tariff necessarily uncertain, and the prey to every change of political parties. This would be the greatest injury to the manufacturer and merchant, as well as to the Government.

The President next reminded Congress of the small amount of money to be realized by the land sales, and concluded by saying that he did but call on Congress to reconsider the subject of the revenue, as, if the bill passed again by a vote of two thirds, it would become a law notwithstanding his objections.

The Message was read in the House on the day when it was sent in, and its consideration postponed till the next day. On the 10th, Mr. John Quincy Adams moved its reference to a select committee of thirteen, and supported his motion in a speech, in which he condemned the conduct of the President in strong terms. A point of order was raised as to the propriety of the proceeding which he suggested, but this was not sustained, and the message was referred as proposed, by a vote of 108 to 84; the bill being laid on the table. Mr. Adams was made chairman of the committee.

On the 16th, this committee presented their report. They began by saying that the Veto Message was the last of a series of Executive measures, the result of which was the defeat and nullification of the whole action of the legislative authority of the Union upon the most important national interests. They proceeded to a review of the proceedings of Congress from its first meeting at the extra session; they touched on the distresses of the nation at the time of President Harrison's accession, and on the wants of government; and said that the Administration had been changed by the popular sentence, that Congress and the Executive might substitute true principles for those which had brought the country to wretchedness and shame.

When the Congress thus chosen met,

by an inscrutable decree of Providence, a successor had assumed the title of the President of the people's choice, who, though professing the same views with his predecessor at the time of his election, entertained totally different principles, which were soon disclosed in diametrical opposition to the sentiments of Congress. This opposition was first disclosed in the failure to establish a National Bank, which led to an improper bending of Congress before the Executive, which was, in the theory of the Constitution, subject to it. A second bill, framed after such a concession to meet his views, met the same fate with its predecessor, though the President had pledged himself to sign it; and, say the committee, it is remarkable that the reasons assigned for the refusal to approve the second bill are in direct and immediate conflict with those which had been assigned for the refusal to sign the first.

The committee proceeded to sketch the first consequence of these vetoes, as not only prostrating the efforts of the legislature for the relief of the people, but leaving all the burdens and embarrassments of the public treasury bearing upon the people with aggravated pressure. The last Administration had left a deficit in the treasury, while a regular reduction of revenue was in progress, which would become most serious if not checked within fifteen months, by direct legislation. By the double exercise of the veto, that legislation was prevented, and consequently the deficit already existing was greatly increased.

At the regular session of Congress, however, the majorities of both Houses, not yielding to the discouragement of such circumstances, renewed their efforts to sustain the treasury and the national obligations. The necessary investigations for this purpose occupied so much time, that they could not be finished before the last reduction of the compromise act would go into effect, and as a temporary expedient, therefore, the majority of Congress provided and sent to the President a bill, limited in its operation to one month, during which, to avoid, as they thought, the possibility of collision with the apprehended antipathies of the President, they had suspended for the same month the distribution of the proceeds of the land sales. The bill was rejected, and in total disregard of the avowed opinions of his own Secretary of the Treasury, concurring with those of nearly all

the lawyers in Congress, in solitary reliance upon the hesitating opinion of the Attorney-General, the President resolved to rely upon the validity of a home valuation of merchandise, to be made under regulations prescribed by the Treasury Department, as the basis of all duties on imposts, when the law expressly requires such valuation to be made, in conformity with such regulations as shall be prescribed by law. To this act the President had now added the veto of a necessary system of revenue, on the ground that it was coupled with the continuance of the land distribution. The committee proceeded to consider the argument by which this veto was defended. After bitterly commenting on its introduction, which expresses the President's view of the veto power, and comparing it with others of his lately expressed opinions, they expressed surprise, that when he had himself recommended a distribution of the land proceeds "*coupled*" with the 20 per cent. condition, his first and paramount objection to the tariff should be that it united those two subjects. If this bill was both a revenue and appropriation bill, so was the land act, which he had approved. They proceeded to a short exposition of the disadvantage and impropriety and injustice of using the land proceeds as revenue, and thus passed to the President's second reason, which they declared futile, as these proceeds were and ought to be the property of the people, and if the principle was once established that they were to be *given away* or ever to pamper the reckless extravagance of a government for ever preaching retrenchment and economy, and for ever reaping million upon million of annual expenditure "to suckle armies and dry nurse the land," never more would the people of any state in the Union have the benefit of one dollar from them. The committee continued this view by an exhibition of the present distressed condition of the state treasuries.

They closed by saying that, as it was impossible to pass the bill by the majority of two thirds required to make a law in opposition to the wish of the President, — as a resort to impeachment, which they believed fully justified by the state of the case, would under existing circumstances prove abortive, — the majority of Congress should express their opinion of the constant abuse of the Executive Veto, by a resolution providing for the amendment of the clause of the constitution re-

lating to it. They suggested that for the words "two thirds" in the 2d paragraph of the seventh section of the constitution, the words "a majority of the whole number" be substituted.

This report was signed by nine of the committee. Mr. Adams, by leave of the House, read it himself. Mr. Gilmer then read a minority report, signed by himself, approving the course of the President, and Mr. Ingersoll read another signed by himself and Mr. Roosevelt, the other democratic member of the committee.

The next day several propositions for a revenue were submitted to the House, but failed to gain its support. The vote on the vetoed bill was again taken up, and the House divided 91 to 87, and as two thirds did not support it, it was accordingly lost. The select committee's report was accepted, 100 to 80, but their resolution for an amendment to the constitution was lost, 98 to 90, not two thirds. For two days the House was occupied in the consideration of revenue projects, framed with the design of meeting the views of the President, but none of them proved acceptable.

On the 21st, however, the House, in committee of the whole, being engaged in the consideration of a bill to legalize the rates of duties now collected under the treasury circular relating to the compromise law, Mr. McKennan moved to strike out all after the enacting clause, and insert the vetoed bill so changed as to omit the land proviso, and to leave tea and coffee free of duty, when coming from beyond the Cape of Good Hope. This motion prevailed, and in this form the bill passed the House on that day, yeas 105, nays 103. The bill united in its favor the votes of 82 Whigs, of 20 democrats, and of 3 Administration men. It was opposed by 65 Democrats, 35 Whigs, and 3 Administration men.

The Senate amended the bill in a number of particulars, mostly unimportant, and passed it on the 27th, by a vote of 24 to 23. It united in its favor the votes of 20 Whigs and 4 Democrats, against 15 Democrats and 8 Whigs. On the 29th, the House concurred in the amendments without a division, and the bill was at once sent to the President. He returned it the next day with his signature, and a message *protesting* against the report of the committee of the House. He had, he said, in *vetoing* the last bill, only done what he considered to be his consti-

tutional duty, with all respect, caution, civility, and deference to Congress. He was surprised, therefore, at the course of the House in relation to it. He had been tried and condemned by the select committee and the House without a hearing, and that too where there was a constitutional method of trying him by an impeachment before the Senate. He protested against this course as "ex parte and extrajudicial, as subversive of the common right of citizens to be condemned only on a fair and impartial trial, as destructive of all comity of intercourse between the Departments, and destined to lead to a conflict fatal to peace and the constitution, as a proceeding tending to the utter destruction of the checks and balances of the constitution, and accumulating in the hands of the House of Representatives, or a bare majority of Congress for the time being, uncontrolled and despotic power." He closed by asking that this Protest might be entered on the journal as a solemn and formal declaration, for all time to come, of the injustice and unconstitutionality of such a proceeding.

The protest was received on the last day but one of the session, and the House did not stop to discuss the proper proceeding upon it. The President's closing request was declined, and the House passed at once the following resolutions, by the votes which we have annexed to them respectively:

1. Resolved, That while this House is and ever will be ready to receive from the President all such messages and communications as the constitution and laws and the usual course of public business authorize him to transmit to it, yet it cannot recognize any right in him to make a formal protest against votes and proceedings of this House, declaring such votes and proceedings to be illegal and unconstitutional, and requesting the House to enter such protest on its journal. (Yeas 87, nays 46.)

2. Resolved, that the aforesaid protest is a breach of the privileges of this House, and that it be not entered on the journal. (Yeas 86, nays 48.)

3. Resolved, That the President of the United States has no right to send a protest to this House against any of its proceedings. (Yeas 86, nays 53.)

These resolutions were thought to have

additional force, from the circumstance that they were the same resolutions that were passed by the Senate in 1834, when President Jackson sent a similar protest to that body. Mr. Tyler was then a member of the Senate, and voted for the resolutions.

The dominant party in the House was unwilling to have it supposed, from its action on the tariff, that it surrendered the principle of the distribution of the land proceeds. On the 25th of the month, therefore, a bill was introduced repealing the much contested 20 per cent. proviso, and this bill passed on the next day, 104 to 86. It passed the Senate on the 29th, 23 to 19. This bill, the effect of which would have been to continue the land distribution, notwithstanding the excess of duties on imports over 20 per cent, was not returned by the President to the House in which it originated, and it consequently failed to become a law, as Congress adjourned on the day after its passage.

On the 20th of August, a letter from the Secretary of the Treasury was laid before the House. It asked for leave to issue treasury notes to the amount of as much of the twelve million loan as had not been taken. The House referred it to the committee of ways and means. That committee, on the 25th, reported a bill authorizing the issue of six millions in such notes, in place of an equal amount of the loan, provided that that loan could not be negotiated at par. This bill passed the House on the 29th.

The "Remedial Justice Bill," (see p. 336,) passed the House on the 25th, received the signature of the President, and became a law.

Early in the month the House passed a resolution for the adjournment of Congress on the 22d. When this resolution came up in the Senate, the condition of affairs was so unsettled, that that body laid it on the table. Subsequently, on the 29th, after the tariff bill had passed, the Senate took it up again, amended it by substituting the 31st as the day of adjournment, and in this form it passed both branches.

The two Houses adjourned accordingly on the 31st, at 2 P. M., after the most prolonged, exciting, and fatiguing session ever held by Congress.

THE MONTHLY CHRONICLE.

SEPTEMBER AND OCTOBER, 1842.

ARTICLE XIV.

NORTHEASTERN BOUNDARY OF THE UNITED STATES. NO. II.

SINCE the publication of our former article on this subject, [p. 241,] the negotiations then pending have brought the long protracted controversy to an end, by the establishment of a new line of boundary, as set forth in the treaty published in our last Number. These negotiations were of a very interesting and important character, and we have therefore inserted here the correspondence entire, as forming an essential part of the history of the day.

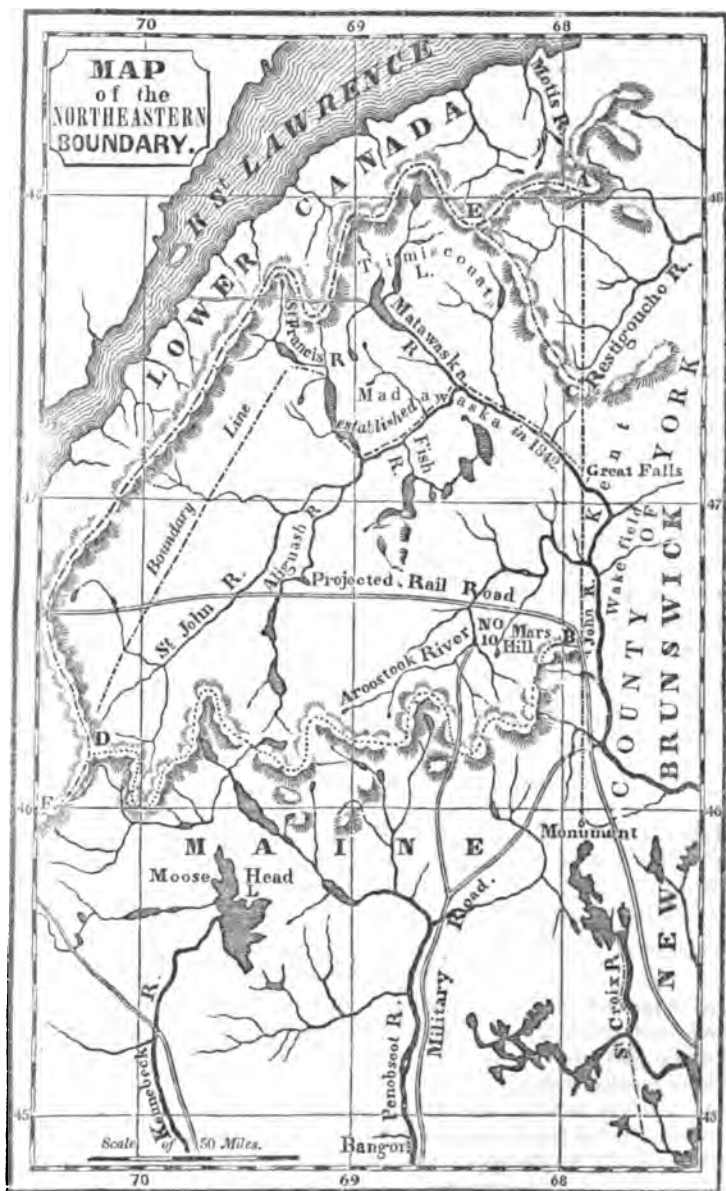
It will be perceived that the negotiation, which has led to this happy result, was based not upon the principle of giving an interpretation of the treaty of 1783, but upon that of adopting a new line of boundary, better adapted to the present convenience of the parties, making some exchanges of territory, with conditions and equivalents mutually advantageous. As we publish the correspondence at large, it is unnecessary here to recapitulate the history of the negotiation. The result may be stated in few words. The United States relinquish to Great Britain all claim to the territory north of the rivers St. John and St. Francis, and to about half that south and west of the St. Francis, and west of the St. John. Great Britain, on her part, relinquishes all claim to territory south and southeast of the line here indicated, and also concedes to New Hampshire the territory between the upper branches of the Connecticut river, by consenting to the adoption of Hall's stream, as the branch which shall form the boundary line, from its source to the 45th degree of latitude. Great Britain also concedes to Vermont and New York the strip of territory which lies between the ascertained line of the 45th degree of latitude, and the

line of possession, including Rouse's Point. Certain other minor changes are made in various parts of the northern boundary, for mutual convenience. Great Britain also concedes to the citizens of the United States the right of the free navigation of the river St. John, from the American frontier to its mouth, for the export of products of the forest and the soil, within the territory watered by the branches of this river.

The state of Maine thus parts with a tract of territory, included within the limits of the treaty of 1783, according to her construction of that instrument, estimated to contain 5,012 square miles, or 3,207,680 acres. The portion of territory included within the limits of the British claim, which is conceded to Maine by this settlement, contains 7,015 square miles, or 4,480,600 acres. The above estimate embraces about 400,000 acres, which were claimed by the state of Maine, situated north and east of the sources of the Restigouche river. This tract, according to the construction which we have heretofore given to the treaty, was not included within the limits of the U. States. The territory thus conceded to Great Britain, north of the St. John and St. Francis rivers, is the same which she would have acquired by the award of the King of the Netherlands, had that decision been carried into effect, amounting to 2,636,160 acres. The additional territory relinquished to Great Britain west of the upper part of the St. John, and extending from the St. Francis to the Metjarmette Portage, amounts to 571,520 acres.

The states of Maine and Massachusetts, which are joint owners of the ungranted lands within the state of Maine, obtain by way of compensation for the territory thus relinquished, in addition to the relinquishment by Great Britain of all claim to the other portions of the disputed territory, an increased value to the lands thus retained by them, from the advantage of the free navigation of the St. John, the only outlet for the timber and produce of this extensive territory, and also the sum of \$300,000 in money, to be paid by the United States, as an equivalent for the tracts of territory not covered by a strict application of the treaty of 1783, which are now conceded to the states of New Hampshire, Vermont, and New York.

The terms of this settlement cannot but be regarded as highly advantageous to both countries. It should be satisfactory to Great Britain and her provinces, because it secures to her, as the fruit of a very slender claim, all the territory which is necessary, for affording an eligible line of communication between the central parts of the two provinces. This territory is acquired by the concession of certain claims on New Hampshire, Vermont, and New York, of little value to herself, but of some moment to those



states, and by the grant to the inhabitants of Maine, of certain privileges, which are likely to prove of great benefit to them, although not onerous to herself. The treaty contains also a number of stipulations of minor importance, which are framed in a benevolent spirit, for the protection of the acquired rights, or supposed rights, of the inhabitants of the frontier, on both sides of the boundary line. On this principle, the line running north, from the monument at the source of the St. Croix to the St. John, is adopted, as it was heretofore run, and as it limits the possessions on each side, in preference to the new line, as rectified by more careful scientific surveys.

The boundary line between the state of Maine and the British provinces, as now established, may be thus described, namely: from the mouth of the river St. Croix through the middle of the channel of that river to its source, where a monument is already established; thence due north by a line indicated by surveys which bound the grants of the adjoining lands, to the river St. John, near the Great Falls; thence through the middle of this river to the mouth of the St. Francis; thence through the middle of the river St. Francis to the outlet of lake Pohenagamoke; thence southwesterly by a line running nearly midway between the main branch of the St. John and the crest of the highlands, to the Met-jarmette Portage; and thence to the source of Hall's Stream, the western branch of the Connecticut river. The most northerly point of the State is at the outlet of lake Pohenagamoke, in latitude 47 deg. 25m. The map on the preceding page will exhibit more distinctly the limits here defined.

BOUNDARY NEGOTIATION.

MESSAGE of the President of the United States to the Senate, accompanying the Treaty with Great Britain, and the correspondence between the British Special Minister and the Secretary of State of the United States, in negotiating the treaty.

Message from the President of the United States, to the Senate of the United States.

I have the satisfaction to communicate to the Senate the results of the negotiations recently had in this city with the British Minister, special and extraordinary.

These results comprise,

1st. A treaty to settle and define the boundaries between the territories of the United States and the possessions of Her Britannic Majesty in North America, for the suppression of the African slave trade, and the surrender of criminals, fugitives from justice, in certain cases.

2d. A correspondence on the subject of the interference of the colonial authorities of the British West Indies with American merchant ves-

sels driven by stress of weather, or carried by violence into the ports of those colonies.

3d. A correspondence upon the subject of the attack and destruction of the steamboat *Caroline*.

4th. A correspondence on the subject of impressment.

If this treaty shall receive the approbation of the Senate, it will terminate a difference respecting boundary which has long subsisted between the two governments, has been the subjects of several ineffectual attempts at settlement, and has sometimes led to great irritation, not without danger of disturbing the existing peace. Both the United States and the States more immediately concerned, have entertained no doubt of the validity of the American title to all the territory which has been in dispute; but that title was controverted, and the government of the United States had agreed to make the dispute a subject of arbitration. One arbitration had been actually had, but had failed to settle the controversy, and it was found, at the commencement of last year, that a correspondence had been in progress between the governments for a joint commission, with an ultimate reference to an umpire or arbitrator, with authority to make a final decision. That correspondence, however, had been retarded by various occurrences, and had come to no definite result when the special mission of Lord Ashburton was announced. This movement on the part of England afforded, in the judgment of the Executive, a favorable opportunity for making an attempt to settle this long existing controversy by some agreement or treaty, without further reference to arbitration.

It seemed entirely proper that, if this purpose were entertained, consultation should be had with the authorities of the states of Maine and Massachusetts. Letters, therefore, of which copies are herewith communicated, were addressed to the governors of those states, suggesting that commissioners should be appointed by each of them, respectively, to repair to this city and confer with the authorities of this government, on a line by agreement or compromise, with its equivalents and compensations. This suggestion was met by both states in a spirit of candor and patriotism, and promptly complied with. Four commissioners on the part of Maine, and three on the part of Massachusetts, all persons of distinction and high character, were duly appointed and commissioned, and lost no time in presenting themselves at the seat of the government of the United States. These commissioners have been in correspondence with his government during the period of the discussions; have enjoyed its confidence and freest communications; have aided the general object with their counsel and advice; and in the end, have unanimously signified their assent to the line proposed in the treaty.

Ordinarily, it would be no easy task to reconcile and bring together such a variety of interests in a matter in itself difficult and perplexed; but the efforts of the government in attempting to accomplish this desirable object, have been seconded and sustained by a spirit of accommodation and conciliation on the part of the states concerned, to which much of the success of these efforts is to be ascribed.

Connected with the settlement of the line of the Northeastern Boundary, so far as it respects the states of Maine and Massachusetts, is the

continuation of that line along the highlands to the northwesternmost head of Connecticut river. Which of the sources of that stream is entitled to this character, has been matter of controversy and of some interest to the state of New Hampshire. The King of the Netherlands decided the main branch to be the northwesternmost head of the Connecticut. This did not satisfy the claim of New Hampshire. The line agreed to in the present treaty follows the highlands to the head of Hall's stream, and thence down that river, embracing the whole claim of New Hampshire, and establishing her title to one hundred thousand acres of territory, more than she would have had by the decision of the King of the Netherlands.

By the treaty of 1783, the line is to proceed down the Connecticut river to the 45th degree of north latitude, and thence west by that parallel till it strikes the St. Lawrence. Recent examinations having ascertained that the line heretofore received as the true line of latitude between those points was erroneous, and that the correction of this error would not only leave, on the British side, a considerable tract of territory, heretofore supposed to belong to the states of Vermont and New York, but also Rouse's Point, the site of a military work of the United States, it has been regarded as an object of importance, not only to establish the rights and jurisdiction of those states, up to the line to which they have been considered to extend, but also to comprehend Rouse's Point within the territory of the United States. The relinquishment by the British Government of all the territory south of the line heretofore considered to be the true line, has been obtained, and the consideration for this relinquishment is to enure by the provisions of the treaty to the states of Maine and Massachusetts.

The line of boundary, then, from the source of the St. Croix to the St. Lawrence, so far as Maine and Massachusetts are concerned, is fixed by their own consent and for considerations satisfactory to them; the chief of these considerations being the privilege of transporting the lumber and agricultural products grown and raised in Maine on the waters of the St. John's and its tributaries down that river to the ocean, free from imposition or disability. The importance of this privilege, perpetual in its terms, to a country covered at present by pine forests of great value, and much of it capable hereafter of agricultural improvement, is not a matter upon which the opinion of intelligent men is likely to be divided.

So far as New Hampshire is concerned, the treaty secures all that she requires, and New York and Vermont are quieted to the extent of their claim and occupation. The difference which would be made in the northern boundary of these two states by correcting the parallel of latitude, may be seen in Tanner's Maps, (1836,) new Atlas, maps Nos 6 and 9. [See also Hale's Map of New England.]

From the intersection of the 45th degree of north latitude with the St. Lawrence, and along that river and the lakes, to the water communication between Lake Huron and Lake Superior, the line was definitively agreed on by the commissioners of the two Governments, under the 6th article of the Treaty of Ghent. But between this last mentioned point and the Lake of the Wood, the commissioners acting under the 7th article

of that treaty found several matters of disagreement, and therefore made no joint report to their respective Governments. The first of these was Sugar Island, or St. George's Island, lying in St. Mary's river, or the water communication between lakes Huron and Superior. By the present treaty this island is embraced in the territories of the United States. Both from soil and position, it is regarded as of much value.

Another matter of difference was the manner of extending the line from the point at which the commissioners arrived, north of the Isle Royale, in lake Superior, to the Lake of the Wood. The British commissioner insisted on proceeding to the Pond du Lac, at the southwest angle of the lake, and thence by the river St. Louis to the Rainy lake. The American commissioner supposed the true course to be to proceed by way of the Dog river. Attempts were made to compromise this difference, but without success. The details of these proceedings are found at length in the printed, separate reports of the commissioners.

From the imperfect knowledge of this remote country, at the date of the treaty of peace, some of the descriptions in that treaty do not harmonize with its natural features as now ascertained. "Long Lake" is no where to be found under that name. There is reason for supposing, however, that the sheet of water intended by that name, is the estuary at the mouth of Pigeon River. The present treaty adopts, therefore, that estuary and river, and afterwards pursues the usual route, across the height of land by the various portages and small lakes, till the line reaches Rainy lake; from which the commissioners agreed on the extension of it to its termination, in the northwest angle of the Lake of the Woods. The region of country on and near the shore of the lake, between Pigeon river on the north, and Pond du Lac and the river St. Louis on the south and west, considered valuable as a mineral region, is thus included within the United States. It embraces a territory of four millions of acres, northward of the claim set up by the British commissioner under the treaty of Ghent. From the height of land at the head of Pigeon River, westerly to the Rainy lake, the country is understood to be of little value, being described by surveyors and marked on the map as a region of rock and water.

From the northwest angle of the Lake of the Woods, which is found to be in latitude 49 deg. 23 min. 55 sec. north, existing treaties require the line to be run due south to its intersection with the 49th parallel, and hence along that parallel to the Rocky Mountains.

After sundry informal communications with the British Minister upon the subject of the claims of the two countries to territory west of the Rocky Mountains, so little probability was found to exist of coming to any agreement on that subject at present, that it was not thought expedient to make it one of the subjects of formal negotiation, to be entered upon between this Government and the British Minister, as part of his duties under his special mission.

By the treaty of 1783, the line of division along the rivers and lakes, from the place where the 45th parallel of north latitude strikes the St. Lawrence, to the outlet of lake Superior, is invariably to be drawn through the middle of such waters, and not through the middle of their

main channels. Such a line, if extended according to the literal terms of the treaty, would, it is obvious, occasionally intersect islands. The manner in which the commissioners of the two Governments deal with this subject may be seen in their reports. But where the line, thus following the middle of the river, or water course, did not meet with islands, yet it was liable sometimes to leave the only practicable navigable channel altogether on one side. The treaty made no provision for the common use of the waters by the citizens and subjects of both countries.

It has happened, therefore, in a few instances, that the use of the river, in particular places, would be greatly diminished to one party or the other, if, in fact, there was not a choice in the use of channels and passages. Thus at the Long Sault, in the St. Lawrence, a dangerous passage, practicable only for boats, the only safe run is between the Long Sault islands and Barnhart's island, all which belong to the United States on one side, and the American shore on the other. On the other hand, by far the best passage for vessels for any depth of water, from lake Erie into the Detroit river, is between Bois Blanc, a British island, and the Canadian shore. So again there are several channels or passages, of different degrees of facility and usefulness, between the several islands in the river St. Clair, at or near its entry to the lake of that name. In these three cases, the treaty provides that all the several channels and passages shall be free and open to the use of the citizens and subjects of both parties.

The treaty obligations subsisting between the two countries for the suppression of the African slave trade and the complaints made to this Government within the last three or four years, many of them but too well founded, of the visitation, seizure, and detention of American vessels on that coast, by British cruisers, could not but form a delicate and highly important part of the negotiations which have now been held.

The early and prominent part which the Government of the United States has taken for the abolition of this unlawful and inhuman traffic, is well known. By the tenth article of the Treaty of Ghent, it is declared that the traffic in slaves is irreconcilable with the principles of humanity and justice, and that both His Majesty and the United States are desirous of continuing their efforts to promote its entire abolition; and it is thereby agreed that both the contracting parties shall use their best endeavors to accomplish so desirable an object. The Government of the United States has, by law, declared the African slave trade piracy; and at its suggestion other nations have made similar enactments. It has not been wanting in honest and zealous efforts, made in conformity with the wishes of the whole country, to accomplish the entire abolition of the traffic in slaves upon the African coast; but these efforts, and those of other countries, directed to the same end, have proved, to a considerable degree, unsuccessful. Treaties are known to have been entered into some years ago, between England and France, by which the former power, which usually maintains a large naval force on the African station, was authorized to seize and bring in for adjudication, vessels found engaged in the slave trade under the French flag.

It is known, that in December last, a treaty was signed in London by the representatives of England, France, Russia, Prussia, and Austria, having for its professed object a strong and united effort of the five powers to put an end to the traffic. This treaty was not officially communicated to the Government of the United States, but its provisions and stipulations are supposed to be accurately known to the public. It is understood to be not yet ratified on the part of France.

No application or request has been made to this Government to become party to this treaty; but the course it might take in regard to it, has excited no small degree of attention and discussion in Europe, as the principle upon which it is founded, and the stipulations which it contains, have caused warm animadversions and great political excitement.

In my message at the commencement of the present session of Congress, I endeavored to state the principles which this Government supports respecting the right of search and the immunity of flags. Desirous of maintaining those principles fully, at the same time that existing obligations should be fulfilled, I have thought it most consistent with the honor and dignity of the country, that it should execute its own laws, and perform its own obligations, by its own means and its own power.

The examination or visitation of the merchant vessels of one nation by the cruisers of another, for any purpose except those known and acknowledged by the law of nations, under whatever restraints or regulations it may take place, may lead to dangerous results. It is far better by other means to supersede any supposed necessity, or any motive, for such examination or visit. Interference with a merchant vessel by an armed cruiser, is always a delicate proceeding, apt to touch the point of national honor, as well as to affect the interests of individuals. It has been thought, therefore, expedient, not only in accordance with the stipulations of the treaty of Ghent, but at the same time as removing all pretext on the part of others for violating the immunities of the American flag upon the seas, as they exist and are defined by the law of nations, to enter into the articles now submitted to the Senate.

The treaty which I now submit to you, proposes no alteration, mitigation, or modification of the rules of the law of nations. It provides simply that each of the two governments shall maintain on the coast of Africa a sufficient squadron to enforce, separately, and respectively, the laws, rights, and obligations of the two countries, for the suppression of the slave trade.

Another consideration of great importance has recommended this mode of fulfilling the duties and obligations of the country. Our commerce along the western coast of Africa is extensive, and supposed to be increasing. There is reason to think, that in many cases those engaged in it have met with interruptions and annoyances, caused by the jealousy and instigation of rivals engaged in the same trade. Many complaints on this subject have reached the Government. A respectable naval force on the coast is the natural resort and security against further occurrences of this kind.

The surrender to justice of persons who, having committed high crimes, seek asylum in the territories of a neighboring nation, would seem to be

an act due to the cause of general justice, and properly belonging to the present state of civilization and intercourse. The British Provinces of North America are separated from the States of the Union by a line of several thousand miles, and along portions of this line the amount of population on either side is quite considerable, while the passage of the boundary is always easy.

Offenders against the law on the one side, transfer themselves to the other. Sometimes, with great difficulty, they are brought to justice, but very often they wholly escape. A consciousness of immunity, from the power of avoiding justice in this way, instigates the unprincipled and reckless to the commission of offences, and the peace and the good neighborhood of the border are consequently often disturbed.

In the case of offenders fleeing from Canada into the United States, the Governors of States are often applied to for their surrender, and questions of a very embarrassing nature arise from these applications. It has been thought highly important, therefore, to provide for the whole case by a proper treaty stipulation. The article on the subject in the proposed treaty is carefully confined to such offences as all mankind agree to regard as heinous, and destructive of the security of life and property. In this careful and specific enumeration of crimes, the object has been to exclude all political offences, or criminal charges arising from wars or intestine commotions. Treason, misprision of treason, libels, desertion from military service, and other offences of similar character, are excluded.

And, lest some unforeseen inconvenience or unexpected abuse should arise from the stipulation, rendering its continuance, in the opinion of one or both of the parties, not longer desirable, it is left in the power of either to put an end to it at will.

The destruction of the steamboat *Caroline* at Schlosser, four or five years ago, occasioned no small degree of excitement at the time, and became the subject of correspondence between the two Governments. That correspondence having been suspended for a considerable period, was renewed in the spring of last year, but no satisfactory result having been arrived at, it was thought proper, though the occurrence had ceased to be fresh and recent, not to omit attention to it on the present occasion. It has only been so far discussed in the correspondence now submitted, as it was accomplished by a violation of the territory of the United States. The letter of the British Minister, while he attempts to justify that violation upon the ground of a pressing and overruling necessity, admitting, nevertheless, that even if justifiable, an apology was due for it, and accompanying this acknowledgment with assurances of the sacred regard of his Government for the inviolability of national territory, has seemed to me sufficient to warrant forbearance from any further remonstrance against what took place, as an aggression on the soil and territory of the country.

On the subject of the interference of the British authorities in the West Indies, a confident hope is entertained, that the correspondence which has taken place, showing the grounds taken by this Government, and the engagements entered into by the British Minister, will be found such as to satisfy the just expectation of the people of the United States.

The impressment of seamen from merchant vessels of this country by British cruisers, although not practiced in time of peace, and therefore not at present a productive cause of difference and irritation, has, nevertheless, hitherto been so prominent a topic of controversy, and is so likely to bring on renewed contentions at the first breaking out of an European war, that it has been thought the part of wisdom now to take it into serious and earnest consideration. The letter from the Secretary of State to the British Minister explains the ground which the Government has assumed, and the principles which it means to uphold. For the defence of these grounds, and the maintenance of these principles, the most perfect reliance is placed on the intelligence of the American people, and on their firmness and patriotism, in whatever touches the honor of the country, or its great and essential interests.

JOHN TYLER.

Washington, August 11, 1842.

Correspondence between the British Special Minister and the Secretary of State, respecting the Northeastern and Northwestern Boundary.

Lord Ashburton to Mr. Webster.

WASHINGTON, June 13, 1842.

SIR: On considering on the most effectual mode of proceeding, to arrive at an amicable and satisfactory termination of the long-continued controversy respecting the Northeastern Boundary, between the British colony of New Brunswick and the State of Maine, I believe that I may confidently conclude, from what has passed in the preliminary conference which I have had the honor of holding with you, that we concur in the opinion that no advantage would be gained by resorting to the interminable discussion on the general ground on which each party consider their claims respectively to rest. In the course of the many years that this discussion has lasted, every argument, on either side, is apparently exhausted, and that without any approach to an agreement. The present attempt, therefore, of a settlement must rest, for its success, not on the renewal of a controversy, but on proceeding upon a presumption, that all means of a reciprocal conviction having failed, as also the experiment of calling in the aid of a friendly arbiter and umpire, there remains only the alternative of a compromise for the solution of this, otherwise, apparently insurmountable difficulty, unless, indeed, it were determined to try a second arbitration, attended by its delay, trouble, and expense, in defiance of past experience as to the probability of any more satisfactory results.

It is undoubtedly true, that, should our present attempt unfortunately fail, there might remain no other alternative but a second reference; yet when I consider all the difficulty and uncertainty attending it, I trust that all parties will come to the conclusion that the very intricate details connected with the case must be better known and judged by our two Governments, than any diligence can make them to be by any third party, and that a sincere, candid disposition to give reciprocally fair weight to

the arguments on either side, is likely to lead us to a more satisfactory settlement than an engagement to abide by the uncertain award of a less competent tribunal.

The very friendly and cordial reception given by you, Sir, as well as by the authorities of your Government, to the assurance that my mission here, by my sovereign, has been determined by an unfeigned desire to settle this and all other questions between us, on principles of conciliation and justice, forbid me to anticipate the possibility of the failure of our endeavors applied with sincerity to this purpose.

With this view of the case, therefore, although not unprepared to enter into the general argument, I abstain from so doing from the conviction that an amicable settlement of this vexed question, so generally desired, will be thereby best promoted. But, at the same time, some opinions have been industriously propagated throughout this controversy, and in some instances by persons in authority, of a description so much calculated to mislead the public mind, that I think it may be of service to offer a few observations.

I do not, of course, complain of the earnest adherence of partisans on either side to the general arguments on which their case is supposed to rest; but a position has been taken, and facts have been repeatedly stated, which I am sure the authorities of the Federal Government will be abundantly able to contradict, but which have evidently given rise to much public misapprehension. It is maintained that the whole of this controversy about the boundary began in 1814, that up to that period the line as claimed by Maine was undisputed by Great Britain, and that the claim was avowedly founded on motives of interest, to obtain the means of conveniently connecting the British provinces. I confine these remarks to the refuting this imputation, and I should, indeed, not have entered upon the controversy, even on this, if it did not appear to involve in some degree a question of national sincerity and good faith.

The assertion is founded on the discussions which preceded the treaty of peace signed at Ghent, in 1814. It is perfectly true that a proposal was submitted by the British plenipotentiaries for the revision of the boundary line on the northeastern frontier, and that it was founded on the position that it was desired to secure the communication between the provinces, the precise delineation of which was at that time imperfectly known. The American plenipotentiaries in their first communication from Ghent to the Secretary of State, admit that the British ministers disclaimed any intention of acquiring an increase of territory, and that they proposed the revision for the purpose of preventing uncertainty and dispute, a purpose sufficiently justified by subsequent events. Again, in their note of the 4th of September, 1814, the British ministers remind those from America that the boundary had never been ascertained, and that the line *claimed by America*, which interrupted the communication between Halifax and Quebec, never could have been in the contemplation of the parties to the treaty of peace in 1783. The same view of the case will be found to pervade all the communications between the plenipotentiaries of the two countries at Ghent. There was no attempt to press any cession of territory on the ground of policy or expediency; but

though the precise geography of the country was then imperfectly known, it was notorious at the time that different opinions existed as to the boundary likely to result from continuing the north line from the head of the river St. Croix. This appears to have been so clearly known and admitted by the American plenipotentiaries, that they, in submitting to the conference the project of a treaty, offer a preamble to their fourth article, in these words: "Whereas neither *that part of the highlands* lying due north from the source of the river St. Croix, and designated in the former treaty of peace between the two powers, as the northwest angle of Nova Scotia, nor the northwesternmost head of Connecticut river, has yet been ascertained," &c.

It should here be observed that these are the words proposed, not by the British, but by the American negotiators, and that they were finally adopted by both, in the fifth article of the treaty.

To close my observations upon what passed on this subject at Ghent, I would draw your attention to the letter of Mr. Gallatin, one of the American plenipotentiaries, to Mr. Secretary Monroe, on the 25th December, 1814.

He offers the following conjecture as to what might probably be the arguments of Great Britain against the line set up by America: "They hope that the river which empties into the Bay de Chaleurs in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, has its source so far west as to intervene between the head waters of the river St. John, and those of the streams emptying into the river St. Lawrence; so that the line north from the river St. Croix will first strike the height of land which divides the waters emptying into the Atlantic Ocean (river St. John) from those emptying into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, (river de Chaleurs) and afterwards the heights of land which divide the waters emptying into the Gulf of St. Lawrence (river de Chaleurs) from those emptying into the river St. Lawrence; but that he said line never can, in the words of the treaty, strike any spot of land actually dividing the waters emptying into the Atlantic Ocean, from those which empty into the river St. Lawrence."

So obvious an argument in opposition to the line claimed by America, could not escape the known sagacity of Mr. Gallatin. I state it not for the purpose of discussing its merit, but to show that, at Ghent, not only the fact was well known that this boundary was a matter in dispute, but that the argument respecting it had then been weighed by the gentlemen so eminent in its subsequent discussion.

Indeed, the fact that the American ministers made the disputed question a matter for reference, by a treaty afterwards ratified by the President and Senate, must to every candid mind be sufficient proof that it was generally considered to be involved in sufficient doubt to entitle it to such a mode of solution. It cannot, possibly, be supposed that the President and Senate would have admitted, by treaty, doubts respecting this boundary, if they had been heard of for the first time through the pretension of the British plenipotentiaries at Ghent.

If the argument or assertions which I am now noticing, and to which I studiously confine myself, had not come from authority, I should owe some apology for these observations. The history of this important con-

troversy is too well known to you, sir, and stands but too voluminously recorded in your department, to make them necessary for your own information.

The repeated discussions between the two countries, and the repeated projects for settlement which have occupied every succeeding administration of the United States, sufficiently prove how unfounded is the assertion, that the doubts and difficulties respecting this boundary had their first origin in the year 1814. It is true that down to that time, and indeed, to a later period, the local features of the country were little known and the different arguments had in consequence not assumed any definite form; but sufficient was known to both parties to satisfy them of the impossibility of tracing strictly the boundary, prescribed by the treaty of peace in 1783. I would refer in proof of this, simply to American authorities, and those of the very first order.

In the year 1802, Mr. Madison, at that time Secretary of State for the United States, in his instructions to Mr. Rufus King, observed that the difficulty in fixing the northwest angle of Nova Scotia, "arises from a reference in the treaty of 1783, to highlands, which it is now found have no definite existence." And he suggests the appointment of a commission, to be jointly appointed, "to determine on a point most proper to be substituted for the description in Article II. of the treaty of 1783." Again, Mr. President Jefferson, in a message to Congress, on the 17th October 1803, stated that "a further knowledge of the ground in the northeastern or northwestern angles of the United States has evinced that the boundaries established by the treaty of Paris, between the British territory and ours, in those points, were too imperfectly described to be susceptible of execution." These opinions of two most distinguished American statesmen gave rise to a convention of boundary made in London by Rufus King and Lord Hawkesbury, which from other circumstances, which it is not necessary to refer to, was not ratified by the Senate.

I might further refer you on this subject to the report of Judge Sullivan, who acted as a commissioner of the United States, for settling the controversy with Great Britain, respecting the true river St. Croix, who says, "the boundary between Nova Scotia and Canada was described by the King's proclamation in the same mode of expression, as that used in the treaty of peace. Commissioners who were appointed to settle that line, have traversed the country in vain to find the highlands designated as the boundary."

With these known facts, how can it possibly be maintained, that doubts about the boundary arose for the first time in the year 1814?

I need not pursue this subject further. Indeed, it would have been useless to treat of it at all with any person having before him the records of the diplomatic history of the two countries for the last century. My object in adverting to it, is, to correct an error, arising, I am ready to believe, not from any intention to misrepresent, but from want of information, and which seemed to be sufficiently circulated to make some refutation useful towards promoting the desired friendly and equitable settlement of this question.

We believe the position maintained by us on the subject of this bound-

ary to be founded in justice and equity ; and we deny that we have been determined in our pretensions by policy and expedience. I might, perhaps, fairly admit, that those last mentioned considerations have prompted, in some measure, our perseverance in maintaining them. The territory in controversy, is, (for that portion of it at least which is likely to come to Great Britain by any amicable settlement,) as worthless for any purpose of habitation or cultivation, as probably any tract of equal size on the habitable globe, and if it were not for the obvious circumstances of its connecting the British North American provinces, I believe, I might venture to say, that whatever might have been the merit of our case, we should long since have given up the controversy, and willingly have made the sacrifice to the wishes of a country with which it is so much our interest, as it is our desire, to maintain the most perfect harmony and good will.

I trust that this sentiment must be manifest in my unreserved communication with you on this, and on all other subjects connected with my mission. If I have failed in this respect, I shall have ill obeyed the instructions of my Government and the earnest dictates of my personal inclination. Permit me, sir, to avail myself of this, my first opportunity of formally addressing you, to assure you unfeignedly of my most distinguished consideration.

ASHBURTON.

Hon. Daniel Webster, &c. &c.

Mr. Webster to Lord Ashburton.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, }
Washington, June 17, 1842. }

Lord Ashburton, having been charged by the Queen's Government, with full powers to negotiate and settle all matters in discussion between the United States and England, and having on his arrival at Washington, announced, that in relation to the question of the northeastern boundary of the United States, he was authorized to treat for a conventional line, or line by agreement, on such terms and conditions, and with such mutual considerations and equivalents as might be thought just and equitable, and that he was ready to enter upon a negotiation for such conventional line, as soon as this Government should say that it was authorized and ready on its part, to commence such negotiation. The undersigned, Secretary of State of the United States, has now the honor to acquaint his Lordship, by direction of the President, that the undersigned is ready, on behalf of the Government of the United States, and fully authorized to proceed to the consideration of such conventional line, or line by agreement, and will be happy to have an interview on this subject at his Lordship's convenience.

The undersigned avails himself on this occasion to tender to Lord Ashburton assurances of his distinguished consideration.

DANIEL WEBSTER.

Lord Ashburton, &c. &c.

Lord Ashburton to Mr. Webster.

WASHINGTON, June 17, 1842.

The undersigned, Plenipotentiary of her Britannic Majesty, on an extraordinary and special mission to the United States of America, has the honor of acknowledging, with much satisfaction, the communication received to-day from Mr. Webster, Secretary of State of the United States, that he is ready on behalf of the United States, and duly authorized, in relation to the question of the Northeastern Boundary of the United States, to proceed to the consideration of a conventional line, or line by agreement, on such terms and conditions, and with such mutual considerations and equivalents as might be thought just and equitable. And in reply to Mr. Webster's invitation to the undersigned, to fix some time for their conference upon this subject, he begs to propose to call on Mr. Webster at the Department of State, to-morrow at 12 o'clock, for this purpose, should that time be perfectly convenient to Mr. Webster.

The undersigned avails himself of this opportunity to assure Mr. Webster of his distinguished consideration.

ASHBURTON.

*Hon. Daniel Webster, &c. &c.**Mr. Webster to Lord Ashburton.*

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, }
Washington, June 17, 1842. }

The Secretary of State will have great pleasure in seeing Lord Ashburton at 12 o'clock to-morrow, as proposed by him.

Lord Ashburton to Mr. Webster.

WASHINGTON, June 21, 1842.

SIR: The letter you did me the honor of addressing me on the 17th inst. informed me that you were now prepared and authorized to enter with me into discussion of that portion of the difference between our two countries, which relates to the Northeastern Boundary; and we had the following day our first formal conference for this purpose, with a view to consider, in the first instance, the best mode of proceeding to arrive at what is so much desired by all parties — an amicable, and at the same time equitable settlement of a controversy, which, with the best intentions, the authorities of the two countries, for nearly half a century, have in vain endeavored to effect.

The result of this conference has been, that I have been invited by you to state generally my view of this case, and of the expectation of my Government; and although I am aware, that in the ordinary practice of

diplomatic intercourse, I should expose myself to some disadvantage by so doing, I nevertheless, do not hesitate to comply, premising only, that the following observations are to be considered merely as memoranda for discussion, and not as formal propositions to have any binding effect, should our negotiation have the unfortunate fate of the many which have preceded it, of ending in disappointment.

I believe you are sufficiently aware of the circumstances which induced me personally to undertake this mission. If the part which, during a long life, I have taken in public affairs, is marked by any particular character, it has been an earnest, persevering desire to maintain peace, and to promote harmony between our two countries. My exertions were unavailingly employed to prevent the last unfortunate war, and have since been unremitting in watching any passing clouds which might at any time forebode its renewal. On the accession to power of the present ministers in England, perceiving the same wise and honorable spirit to prevail with them, I could not resist the temptation and the hope of being of some service to my country, and to our common race, at a time of life when no other cause could have had sufficient interest to draw me from a retirement better suited to my age and to my inclination.

I trust, sir, that you will have perceived in the course of my hitherto informal communications with you, that I approach my duties generally without any of those devices and manœuvres which are supposed, I believe ignorantly, to be the useful tools of ordinary diplomacy. With a person of your penetration they would avail as little as they would with the intelligent public of the two great enlightened countries, of whose interests we are treating. I know no other mode of acting than an open, plain dealing, and I therefore disregard, willingly, all the disadvantage of complying with the invitation given me to be the first to speak on this question of the eastern boundary. It is already agreed, that we abstain from a continued discussion of the arguments by which the lines of the two countries are reciprocally maintained; and I have so well observed this rule, that I have not even communicated to you a volume of additional controversial matter which I brought with me, and much of which would, if controversy were our object, be of no inconsiderable weight and importance. It would be in the event only of the failure of this negotiation, which I will not anticipate, that we should be again driven into the labyrinth, from which it is our purpose to escape, and that failing to interpret strictly the words of the treaty, we should be obliged to search again into contemporaneous occurrences and opinion for principles of construction which might shed light on the actual intentions of the parties.

Our success must, on the contrary, depend on the reciprocal admission, or presumption that the royal arbiter was so far right when he came to the conclusion which others had come to before him, that the treaty of 1763 was not executable according to its strict expression, and that the case was therefore one for agreement by compromise. The only point upon which I thought it my duty to enter upon any thing like controversy, is that referred to in my letter of the 13th instant, and I did so to rescue my government and myself from an imputation of unworthy mo-

tives, and the charge that they had set up a claim which they knew to be unfounded, from mere considerations of policy or convenience. The assertions of persons in my position, on subjects connected with diplomatic duties, are naturally received by the world with some caution; but I trust that you will believe me when I assure you that I should not be the person to come here on any such errand.

I do not pretend, nor have I ever thought the claim of Great Britain, with respect to this boundary, any more than the claim of America, to be unattended with difficulties. The claims have been considered by impartial men, of high authority and unquestioned ability, to be equally so attended, and therefore it is that this is a question for a compromise, and it is this compromise which it has become our duty to endeavor to accomplish.

I will only here add the most solemn assurance, which I would not lightly make, that after a long and careful consideration of all the arguments and inferences, direct and circumstantial, bearing on the whole of this truly difficult question, it is my settled conviction that it was the intention of the parties to the treaty of peace of 1783, however imperfectly those intentions may have been executed, to leave to Great Britain by their description of boundaries, the whole of the waters of the river St. John.

The length of these preliminary observations requires, perhaps, some apology, but I now proceed to comply with your application to me to state the principles and conditions on which it appears to me that this compromise, which it is agreed we should attempt, should be founded.

A new boundary is in fact to be traced between the State of Maine and the Province of New Brunswick. In doing this, reference must be had to the extent and value of the territory in dispute, but as a general principle, we cannot do better than keep in mind the intention of the framers of the first treaty of peace in 1783, as expressed in the preamble to the provisional article in the following words: "Whereas reciprocal advantages and mutual convenience are found by experience to form the only permanent foundation of peace and friendship between States, &c." I have on a former occasion explained the reasons which have induced the British Government to maintain their rights in this controversy beyond any apparent value in the object in dispute, to be the establishing of a good boundary between our two countries, so as to prevent collision and dispute, and an unobstructed communication and connection of our colonies with each other. Further, it is desired to retain under the jurisdiction of each government respectively, such inhabitants as have for a length of time been so living, and to whom a transfer of allegiance might be painful or distressing.

These are briefly the objects we have in view, and which we must now seek to reconcile to a practical division of the territory in dispute. Great Britain has no wish of aggrandizement for any general purpose of increased dominion, as you must be satisfied by the liberality with which I have professed myself ready to treat questions of boundaries in other quarters, where no considerations of particular convenience or fitness occur. I might further prove this by calling your attention to the fact, that of the land likely to come to us by any practical settlement, nine-

tenth parts of it are, from its position and quality, wholly worthless. It can support no population, it grows even little timber of value, and can be of no service but as a boundary, for two distinct governments.

In considering on the map a division of the territory in question, this remarkable circumstance must be kept in mind, that a division of acres by their number would be a very unequal division of their value. The southern portion of this territory, the valley of the Aroostook, is represented to be one of the most beautiful and most fertile tracts of land in this part of the continent, capable of the highest state of cultivation, and covered with fine timber, while the northern portion, with the exception of that small part comprised within the Madawaska settlement, is of the miserable description I have stated. It would be no exaggeration to say, that one acre on the Aroostook would be of much more value than ten acres north of the St. John. There would be, therefore, no equality in making a division of acre for acre.

But although I remind you of this circumstance, I do not call on you to act upon it. On the contrary, I am willing that you should have the advantage in this settlement, both in the quantity and quality of this land. All I wish is to call this fact in proof of my assertion, that the object of Great Britain was simply to claim that which was essential to her, and would form a convenient boundary, and to leave all the more material advantages of this bargain to the State of Maine.

I now come to the more immediate application of these principles to a definite line of boundary : and looking at the map with reference to the sole object of Great Britain as already described, the line of the St. John from where the north line of the St. Croix strikes it, up to some one of its sources, seems evidently to suit both parties, with the exception which I shall presently mention.

This line throws the waste and barren tract to Great Britain, and the rich and valuable lands to Maine ; but it makes a good boundary, and thus avoids collision and probable dispute ; and for the reasons stated, we should be satisfied with it if it were not for the peculiar circumstances of a settlement formed on both sides of the St. John, from the mouth of the Madawaska up to that of Fish river.

The history and circumstances of this settlement are well known to you. It was originally formed from the French establishment in Acadia, and has been uninterruptedly under French or British dominion, and never under any other laws. The inhabitants have professed great apprehension of being surrendered by Great Britain, and have lately sent an earnest petition to the Queen, deprecating that being done.

Further, this settlement forms one united community all connected together, and living some on one and some on the other side of the river, which forms a sort of high road between them.

It seems self evident that no more inconvenient line of boundary could well be drawn than one which divides in two an existing municipality, inconvenient as well to the inhabitants themselves as to the authorities under which they are to live. There would be evident hardship, I might say, cruelty, in separating this now happy and contented village, to say nothing of the bickerings and probable collisions likely to arise from

taking in this spot the precise line of the river, which would under other circumstances satisfy us. Indeed, I should consider that such a separation of these industrious settlers, by placing them under separate laws and governments, a most harsh proceeding, and that we should thereby abandon the great object we should have in view, of the happiness and convenience of the people, and the fixing a boundary the least likely to occasion future strife.

I dwell on this circumstance at some length, in justification of the necessity I am under of departing to this inconsiderable extent from the marked line of the river St. John. What line should be taken to cover this difficulty, I shall have to consider with you; but I cannot in any case abandon the obvious interests of the people. It will be seen by an inspection of the map, that it is not possible to meet this difficulty by making over to Maine the northern portion of this settlement, as that would be giving up by Great Britain the immediately adjoining communication with Canada, which it is her principal object to preserve.

These observations dispose of those parts of the question which immediately concern the State of Maine; but it may be well at the same time to state my views respecting the adjoining boundary of the States of New Hampshire, Vermont, and New York, because they made part of the reference to the King of the Netherlands, and were indeed the only part of the subject in dispute upon which a distinct decision was given.

The question here at issue between the two countries was, as to the correct determination of the parallel of latitude, and the true source of the Connecticut river. Upon both these points decisions were pronounced in favor of Great Britain; and I might add that the case of America, as matter of right, was but feebly and doubtfully supported by her own authorities. I am nevertheless disposed to surrender the whole of this case, if we should succeed in settling, as proposed, the boundary of Maine. There is a point or two in this line of boundary where I may have to consider, with the assistance of the surveyors acquainted with the localities, the convenience of the resident settlers, as also, which line may best suit the immediate country at the head of the Connecticut river, but substantially the Government of America shall be satisfied, and this point be yielded to them.

This concession, conceded with reference to the value of the land ceded, which is generally reported to be fertile, and to contain a portion at Rouse's Point much coveted in the course of the controversy, would, under ordinary circumstances, be considered of considerable importance.

The concession will, however, be made by Great Britain without reluctance, not only to mark the liberal and conciliatory spirit by which it is desired to distinguish these negotiations, but because the case is in some respects analogous to that of the Madawaska settlements, before considered. It is believed that the settlers on the narrow strip, which would be transferred to Great Britain by rectifying the 45th parallel of latitude, which was formerly incorrectly laid down, are principally from the United States, and that their opinions and habits incline them to evince a preference to that form of Government, under which, before the

discovery of the error in question, they supposed themselves to be living. It cannot be desired by Her Majesty to acquire any addition of territory under such circumstances, whatever may be the weight of her rights; but it will be observed that the same argument applies almost exactly to the Madawaska settlement, and justifies the reservation I am thus obliged to make. In these days the convenience and happiness of the people to be governed will ever be the chief guide in transactions of this description, between such Governments as those of Great Britain and the United States.

Before quitting this subject, I would observe, that it is rumored that Major Graham, in his late survey of Maine, reports some deviation from the true north of the line from the head of the St. Croix towards the St. John. I would here also propose to abide by the old line long established, and from which the deviation by Major Graham is, I am told, inconsiderable, without at all doubting the accuracy and good faith of that very distinguished officer.

In stating the important concessions I am prepared to make on a final settlement of these boundaries, I am sensible that concessions to one State of this Union are not always to be made available for the satisfaction of any other; but you are aware that I am treating with the United States, and that for a long line of important boundaries, and that I cannot presume to enter on the question how the settlement might operate on, or be in any way compensated to, the different States of the confederacy.

I should, however, add my unfeigned belief, that what I have proposed will appear reasonable with reference to the interests of the State of Maine considered singly.

That the proposition, taken as a whole, will be satisfactory to the country at large, I can entertain no doubt.

I abstain from noticing here, the boundaries further west, which I am prepared to consider and to settle, because they seem to form a part of a case which it will be more convenient to treat separately.

In the course of these discussions much anxiety has been expressed that Maine should be assured of some means of communication by the St. John, more especially for the conveyance of her lumber. This subject I am very willing to consider, being sensible of the great importance of it to that State, and that the friendly and peaceful relations between the neighboring countries cannot be better secured than by reciprocally providing for all their wants and interests. Lumber must for many years be the principal produce of the extensive valley of Aroostook, and of the southern borders of the St. John; and it is evident that this article of trade being worth any thing, must mainly depend upon its having access to the sea through that river. It is further evident, that there can be no such access under any arrangement otherwise than by the consent of the Province of New Brunswick. It is my wish to seek an early opportunity of considering, with some person well acquainted with the commerce of that country, what can be done to give it the greatest possible freedom and extent, without trenching too much on the fiscal regulations of the two countries. But, in the mean time, in order to meet at once the urgent wants and wishes of Maine in this respect, I would engage that,

on the final settlement of these differences, all lumber and produce of the forest of the tributary waters of the St. John shall be received freely without duty, and dealt with in every respect like the same articles of New Brunswick.

I cannot now say positively whether I may be able to go further, but this seems to me what is principally required. Suggestions have at times been thrown out of making the port and river of St. John free to the two countries, but I think you will be sensible that this could not be done without some reciprocity for the trade of the St. John in the ports of the United States, and that, in endeavoring to regulate this, we should be embarking in an intricate question, much and often discussed between the two countries. It cannot also fail to occur to you that joint rights in the same harbors and waters must be a fruitful source of dissension, and that it behooves us to be careful not to sow the seeds of future differences in the settlement of those in our own day.

I have now stated, as I was desired to do, my views of the terms on which it appears to me that this settlement may be made. It must be sufficiently evident that I have not treated the settlement in the ordinary form of a bargain, where the party making the proposal leaves himself something to give up.

The case would not admit of this, even if I could bring myself so to act. It would have been useless for me to ask what I know could not be yielded, and I can unfeignedly say, that, even if your vigilance did not forbid me to expect to gain any undue advantage over you, I should have no wish to do so. The treaty we have to make will be subjected to the scrutiny of a jealous and criticising public, and it would ill answer its main purpose of producing and perpetuating harmony and good will, if its provisions were not considered by good and reasonable men to make a just and equitable settlement of this long continued controversy.

Permit me, sir, to conclude with the assurance of my distinguished consideration.

ASHBURTON.

HON. DANIEL WEBSTER, &c. &c.

Mr. Webster to Lord Ashburton.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, }
Washington, July 8, 1842. }

MY LORD — Your notes of the 13th and 21st of June were duly received. In the first of these, you correctly say, that in our conference on the Boundary Question, we have both been of opinion, that no advantage would be gained by resorting at this time to the discussion at length of the grounds on which each party considers its claim of right to rest. At the same time you deem it expedient, nevertheless, to offer some observations, calculated, in your judgment, to repel a supposed allegation, or suggestion, that this controversy only began in 1814; that up to that period the American claim was undisputed; and that the

English claim, as now set forth, is founded merely in motives of interest. Nothing is more natural than that your Lordship should desire to repel an imputation which would impeach the sincerity and good faith of your government, and all the weight which justice and candor require, are given to your Lordship's observations in this respect. It is not my purpose, nor do I consider it pertinent to the occasion, to go into any consideration of the facts and reasonings presented by you, to show the good faith and sincerity of England in the claim asserted by her. Any such discussion would be a departure from the question of right now subsisting between the two governments, and would be more especially unfit for an occasion in which the parties are approaching each other in a friendly spirit, with the hope of terminating the controversy by agreement. Following your lordship's example, however, I must be permitted to say, that few questions have ever arisen under this government, in regard to which, a stronger or more general conviction was felt that this country was in the right, than this question of the northeastern boundary. To say nothing of the sentiments of the government and people of the States more directly interested, whose opinions may be supposed capable of bias, both Houses of Congress, after full and repeated consideration, have affirmed the validity of the American claim, by a unanimity experienced on very few other subjects, and the general judgment of the whole people seems to be the same way.

Abstaining from all historical facts, all contemporaneous expositions, and all external arguments and circumstances, I will venture to present to your lordship a very condensed view of the reasons which produce in this country the conviction that a boundary line may be ascertained, run, and delineated with provisions, under and according to the words of the stipulation in the treaty of 1783, that no doubt can be raised by any part of that stipulation, which other parts of it do not remove or explain, and that a line so run would include all that the United States claim. This view is presented by a series of short propositions.

1. The northwest angle of Nova Scotia is the thing to be sought for and found.

2. That angle is to be ascertained by running a line due north from the source of the St. Croix river till that line reaches the highlands, and where such north line intersects the highlands, there is the angle; and thence the line is to run along the said highlands, which said highlands divide those rivers which empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence, from those that fall into the Atlantic Ocean. The angle required, therefore, is an angle made by the intersection of a due north line with the highlands, from one slope of which the rivers empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence, and from the other into the Atlantic Ocean.

3. Supposing it to be matter of doubt whether the St. John and the Restigouche are rivers falling into the Atlantic Ocean in the sense of the treaty, then the rule of just interpretation is, that if one element or one part in the description be uncertain, it is to be explained by others which are certain, if there be such others.

Now there is no doubt as to the rivers which fall into the St. Lawrence. They are certain, and to their sources the north line is to run,

since at their sources the highlands required by the treaty do certainly exist. And departing from the rule just prescribed to myself, I will remind your lordship that the joint commissioners and the agents of the two Governments in 1817, in giving the surveyors instructions for finding these highlands, directed them, in terms, to proceed upon a due north line, "till they should arrive at some one of the streams connected with the river St. Lawrence," and then to explore the highlands from that point to the northwesternmost head of Connecticut river. It is indisputable that a line run according to their instructions, thus given by the commissioners and agents of both governments, would give to the United States all that they have at any time claimed.

4. It is certain, that by the treaty the eastern boundary of the United States, from the head of the St. Croix, is to be a due north and south line. And it is equally certain that the line is to run north until it reaches the highlands from whose northern waters head the rivers flow into the St. Lawrence.

5. These two things, being, one mathematically, and the other physically certain in themselves, and capable of being precisely marked and delineated, explain or control the uncertainty, if there be uncertainty, in the other part or element of the description.

6. The British argument, assuming that the Bay of Fundy, and more especially the Bay of Chaleur, are not the Atlantic Ocean, within the meaning of the treaty, insists that the rivers flowing into these bays are not, therefore, in the sense of the treaty, rivers falling into the Atlantic, and therefore the highlands to which the United States claim, have not that southern or eastern watersheds which the treaty calls for, and as it is agreed, nevertheless, that we must somewhere find highlands, and go to them, whose northern waters run into the St. Lawrence, the conclusion is, that the different parts of the description in the treaty do not cohere, and that therefore the treaty cannot be executed.

7. Our answer to this, as is obvious from what has already been said is two-fold.

1st. What may be doubtful in itself, may be made certain by other things which are certain; and inasmuch as the treaty does certainly demand a due north line, and does certainly demand the extension of that line to the highlands from whose northern sides the rivers flow into the river St. Lawrence, these two requirements make it plain, that the parties to the treaty considered in fact, the rivers flowing from the south or east of the *said* highlands, to be rivers falling into the Atlantic Ocean, because they have placed St. Lawrence river and the Atlantic rivers in contradistinction to each other, as rivers running in opposite directions, but with their sources in the same highlands. Rivers fed from these highland fountains, running north or northwest, are rivers emptying themselves into the St. Lawrence; and rivers rising from the same fountains, and running in an opposite direction, seem to be as clearly meant to be designated by the character of Atlantic rivers. And, as strongly corroborating this view of the subject, allow me to call your lordship's attention to two facts.

1. The coast of the Atlantic Ocean, from the Penobscot river north-

easterly, and the western shore of the Bay of Fundy, which is but a continuation of the coast, and is in a line with it, are very nearly parallel to the course of the river St. Lawrence through the same latitudes. This is obvious from the map.

2. The rivers which from their sources in the same ridge, flow respectively into the St. Lawrence and into the Bay of Fundy, and even into the Bay of Chaleur, run with remarkable uniformity in directions almost exactly opposite, as if hastening away from a common origin to their different destinations by the shortest course. The only considerable exception to this is the northern sweep of the upper part of the St. John; but the smaller streams flowing into this part of that river from the west, still strictly obey the general rule.

Now if, from a certain general line on the face of the country, or as delineated on the map, rivers are found flowing away in opposite directions, however strongly it may be asserted that the mountains, or eminences are but isolated elevations, it is nevertheless absolutely certain that such line does in fact define a ridge of highlands which turns the waters both ways.

And as the commissioners in 1783 had the map before them; as they saw the parallelism of the sea coast and the course of the St. Lawrence; as they saw rivers rising from a common line and running, some north or northwest, and others south or southeast; and as they speak of some of these rivers as emptying themselves into the river St. Lawrence, and of the others as falling into the Atlantic Ocean; *and as they make no third class*, is there a reasonable doubt in which class they intend to comprehend all the rivers running in a direction from the St. Lawrence, whether falling immediately or only ultimately into the Atlantic Ocean?

If there be nothing incoherent or inconsequential in this chain of remarks, it will satisfy your lordship, I trust, that it is not without reason that American opinion has settled firmly in the conviction of the rights of the American side of the question; and I forbear from going into the consideration of the mass of other arguments and proofs, for the same reasons which restrain your lordship from entering into an extended discussion of the question, as well as because your lordship will have an opportunity of perusing a paper addressed to me by the commissioners of Maine, which strongly presents the subject on other grounds and in other lights.

I am now to consider your lordship's note of the 21st June. Before entering upon this, I have the President's instructions, to say, that he fully appreciates the motives which induced your lordship, personally, to undertake your present mission; that he is quite aware that your public life has been distinguished by efforts to maintain peace and harmony between the two countries; that he quite well recollects that your exertions were employed to prevent the late war; and that he doubts not the sincerity of your declaration, that nothing could have drawn you from your retirement, and induced you to engage in your present undertaking, but the hope of being of service to your country and to our common race. And I have the utmost pleasure, my Lord, in acknowledging the frankness, candor, and plain dealing, which has characterized your offi-

cial intercourse with this Government, nor am I permitted or inclined to entertain any doubt of your lordship's entire conviction, as expressed by yourself, as to the merits of this controversy and the difficulties of the case. The question before us, is whether these confident opinions, on both sides, of the rightful nature and just strength of our respective claims, will permit us, while a desire to preserve harmony, and a disposition to yield liberally to mutual convenience so strongly incite us, to come together and unite on a line by agreement.

It appears to be your lordship's opinion, that the line of the St. John from the point where the north line from the St. Croix strikes that river, up to some one of its sources, evidently suits both parties, with an exception however, of that part of the Madawaska settlement, which is on the south side of the St. John, which you propose should be included within the British territory. That on a line by agreement the St. John for some distance upward from its intersection by the line running north from the St. Croix, would be a very convenient boundary for the two parties, is readily admitted; but it is a very important question how far up, and to which of the sources of this river this line should extend. Above Madawaska, the course of this river turns to the south, and stretches away towards the sources of the Penobscot, leaving far to the north the line of communication between New Brunswick and Canada. That line departs from the St. John altogether near Madawaska, and keeping principally upon the left or north bank of the Madawaska, and proceeding by way of the Temiscouata Lake, reaches the St. Lawrence at the mouth of the river DuLoup.

There are, then, two important subjects for consideration :

First. Whether the United States can agree to cede, relinquish, or cease to claim any part of the territory west of the north line from the St. Croix and south of the St. John. And I think it but candid to say at once, that we see insurmountable objections to admitting the line to come south of the river. Your lordship's observations upon the propriety of preserving the unity of the Madawaska settlement, are in a great measure just, and altogether founded, I doubt not, in entirely good motives. They savor of humanity and a kind regard to the interests and feelings of individuals. But the difficulties seem insuperable. The river, as your lordship remarks, seems a natural boundary, and in this part of it, to run in a convenient direction. It is a line always clear and indisputable. If we depart from it, where shall we find another boundary, equally natural, equally clear, and conforming to the same general course? A departure from the line of the river, moreover, would open new questions about equivalents, which it would probably be found impracticable to settle. If your lordship was at liberty, as I understand you not to be, to cede the whole or a part of the territory, commonly called the strip, lying east of the north line, and west of the St. John, considerations might be found in such a cession, possibly, for some new demarcation west of the north line and south of the river. But in the present position of things I cannot hold out the expectation to your lordship, that any thing south of the river can be yielded.

And, perhaps, the inconveniences to the settlers on the southern bank,

of making the river the boundary, are less considerable than your lordship supposes. These settlers are scattered along a considerable extent, very likely soon to connect themselves with whomsoever may come to live near them; and though of different origin, and some difference of religion, not likely on the whole, to be greatly dissimilar from other borderers, occupying the neighboring territory, their rights of property would, of course, be all preserved, both of inheritance and alienation, and if some of them should choose to retain the political and social relations under which they now are, their removal for that purpose, to the north bank, drawing after it no loss of property or means of subsistence, would not be a great hardship. Your lordship suggests the inconvenience of dividing a municipality by a line of national boundary; and certainly there is force in the observation; but if, departing from the river, we were to establish at the south of it an artificial line upon the land, there might be points upon such line, at which people would live in numbers, on both sides; and a mere mathematical line might thus divide villages, while it divided nations. The experience of the world, and our own experience, show the propriety of making rivers boundaries, for the same reason that, in other cases to which they are applicable, mountain ranges, or ridges of highlands, are adopted for the same purpose; these last being, perhaps, still more convenient lines of division than rivers, being equally clear and prominent objects, and the population of neighboring countries, bordering on a mountain line of separation, being usually thin and inconsiderable on either side.

Rivers and inland waters constitute the boundary between the United States and the Territory of Her Majesty for some thousands of miles westward from the place where the 45th degree of north latitude intersects the St. Lawrence; and along this line occasional irregularities and outbreaks have taken place, always by the agency and instigation of agitators and lawless men, friends of neither country; yet it is clear that no better demarcation of limits could be made. And at the north part, along the space through which the St. Croix constitutes the line of separation, controversies and conflicts are not heard of; but similarity of language, character, and pursuits, and mutual respect for the rights of each other, preserve the general peace.

Upon the whole, my lord, feeling that there may be inconvenience, and perhaps a small degree of hardship, I yet cannot admit that there is any cruelty in separating the Madawaska settlers south of the St. John, so far as political relations are concerned, from their neighbors on the north of that river.

In the present state of society, and of peace which exists between the two countries, the severance of political relations need not to disturb social and family intercourse; while high considerations, affecting both the present and the future, seem to me to require, that, following natural indications, we adhere to the St. John, in this part of its course, as the line of division.

The next question is, how far upward this boundary ought to be observed, and along which of its branches. This question would be easily settled if what may be called the main branch of the river, in this part of

it, differing from the general character of the rivers in this region of the country, did not make a sudden turn. But, if we consider the main branch of the St. John, that which has been usually so denominated, your lordship observes that, near the mouth of the Madawaska, it turns almost at right angles, and pushes its source towards those of the Penobscot. Contiguity and compactness of territory can hardly be preserved by following a stream which makes not occasional windings, but at once so great a deflection from its previous course. The Madawaska is one of its branches or principal sources, and, as the map shows, is very much a continuance of the line of the principal river from the Great Falls upward. The natural course would, therefore, seem to be, to continue along this branch.

We understand, and indeed collect from your lordship's note, that with whatever opinion of her right to the disputed territory, England, in asserting it, has principally in view to maintain, on her own soil, her accustomed line of communication between Canada and New Brunswick. We acknowledge the general justice and propriety of this object, and agree at once, that with suitable equivalents, a conventional line ought to be such as to secure it to England. The question, therefore, simply is, what line will secure it?

The common communication between the provinces follows the course of the St. John from the Great Falls to the mouth of the Madawaska, going along with it to the Temiscouata Lake, and so across the highlands to streams running into the St. Lawrence. And this line of communication we are willing to agree shall hereafter be within acknowledged British territory, upon such considerations and conditions as may be assented to. The Madawaska and the forementioned lakes might conveniently constitute the boundary, but I believe it is true that, in some parts of the distance, above the mouth of the Madawaska, it has been found convenient to establish the course of communication on the south bank of that river. This consideration may be important enough to justify a departure from what would otherwise be desirable, and the running of the line at some distance south of the Madawaska, observing natural monuments where it may be practicable, and thus leaving the whole valley of the Madawaska on the British side.

The U. States, therefore, upon the adjustment of proper equivalents, would not object to a line of boundary which should begin at the middle of the main channel of the river St. John, where that river is intersected by a due north line, extended from the source of the St. Croix, thence proceeding westerly along the said main channel to a point three miles westerly of the mouth of the Madawaska, thence by a straight line to the outlet of Long Lake, thence westerly by a direct line to the point where the river St. Francis empties itself into the lake called Pohenagamook, thence continuing in the same direct line to the highlands which divide the waters falling into the river DuLoup from those which fall into the St. Francis. Having thus arrived at the highlands, I shall be ready to confer on the correct manner of following them to the north-westernmost head of Connecticut river.

Such a line as has been now described would secure to England a free

intercourse between Canada and New Brunswick ; and with the navigation of the St. John yielded to the United States, would appear to meet the wants of all parties. Your lordship's proposition in regard to the navigation is viewed as just, and as constituting, so far as it may go, a natural equivalent. Probably the use of the river for the transportation of the products of the forest grown on the American side of the line, would be equally advantageous to both parties, and therefore, in granting it, no sacrifice of British interest would be incurred. A conviction of this, together with their confidence in the validity of their own claim, is very likely to lead the two States immediately concerned to consider their relinquishment of the lands north of the line much in the light of a mere cession. It need not be denied that, to secure this privilege, and to have a right to enjoy it, free from tax, toll, or other liability or inability, is an object of considerable importance to the people of Maine.

Your lordship intimates that, as a part of the general arrangement of boundaries, England would be willing to surrender to the United States Rouse's Point, and all the territory heretofore supposed to be within the boundaries of New Hampshire, Vermont, and New York, but which a correct ascertainment of the forty-sixth parallel of north latitude, shows to be included within the British line. This concession is, no doubt, of some value. If made, its benefits would enure partly to these three states, and partly to the United States ; and none of it to the particular interests of Maine and Massachusetts.

If regarded, therefore, as a part of the equivalent for the manner of adjusting the northeastern boundary, these two last mentioned states would, perhaps, expect that the value, if it could be ascertained, should be paid to them. On this point further consideration may be necessary.

If in other respects we should be able to agree on a boundary, the points which you refer to, connected with the ascertainment of the head of the Connecticut, will be attended to, and Capt. Talcott, who made the exploration in that quarter, will be ready to communicate the result of his observations.

I have the honor to be, with distinguished consideration, your obedient servant,

DANIEL WEBSTER.

LORD ASHBURTON, &c. &c.

Lord Ashburton to Mr. Webster.

WASHINGTON, July 11, 1842.

Sir : I lose no time in acknowledging the receipt of the note you did me the honor of addressing me on the 8th instant, and I beg, in the first place, to say, that I am duly sensible of the assurance you give me that the President has been pleased to appreciate the motives which induced my present mission, and much flattered by your recognition of the candor and frankness which have hitherto marked our intercourse.

I had hoped that we had escaped by mutual consent from a return to the endless and fruitless argument on the general question of the rights of our respective governments in the matter of the northeastern boundary.

It seemed to me to have been decided by so many high and competent authorities, that the precise geographical point so long looked for was not to be found, that it necessarily followed that any hope of settlement must rest upon an amicable compromise.

The arrival here of the commissioners from Maine and Massachusetts, and the admitted disposition of the two governments, have given the public a very general expectation that this compromise might at last be effected; and I hope you will excuse my expressing my regret that the note now before me, and the paper from the gentlemen from Maine, addressed to you, which accompanied it, should have contained so much of the renewal of the old controversy, and should not have been confined to the simple question whether we could, or could not agree to terms of settlement. If the observations contained in my note of the 13th ultimo have given rise to these consequences, I much regret it, and I would now pass over all these more than useless discussions, and proceed at once to notice the proposal you make, if I were not apprehensive that my so doing might be construed into some want of respect for the parties from whom these observations have proceeded.

I will, however, endeavor to bring within a narrow compass what I have to say on the subject, and the more so, because with all deference to you, sir, I may add, that there is little in these arguments that is new, or that has not been often advanced and refuted during the many past years of controversy.

I should except from this want of novelty, the position, to me entirely new, advanced by the commissioners from Maine, that the northwest angle of Nova Scotia, which is, as you express it, "the thing to be sought for and found," was at the head of the Madawaska river, which river it is maintained by a long argument supported by authorities and maps, was always considered as the real St. John, and this is stated to justify the opinion expressed by the old Congress, in 1799, that this northwest angle was at the source of the St. John.

Giving all possible consideration to this apparently new discovery, I cannot say that it appears well founded. Looking at Mitchell's map, the use of which, by the negotiators of the peace of 1783, has always been so much relied upon on the part of America, there is nothing more clearly marked than the great distinct channel of the upper St. John, and it seems hardly possible that the negotiators or the Congress should have made the supposed mistake.

But supposing this hypothesis were well founded, the Temiscouata lake is then to be now this long lost angle of Nova Scotia. What becomes, then, of the point so long contended for by Maine, between the Metis and one of the tributaries of the Restigouche? These points must be about fifty miles apart. Both cannot be true, and if it be maintained, as I rather collect it to be, from the paper of the Maine commissioners, that the point at the Metis is the true boundary, as being the point stricken by the north line, though the other be the true northwest angle of Nova Scotia, there is at least an end of the whole argument, resting upon this northwest angle being, as stated by you, "the thing to be sought for and found."

If this new discovery leads us to no other inference, we can hardly fail to derive from it the conviction, that all the ingenuity applied to unravel this mystery leaves us equally in the dark; and that it is not without reason that it has been decided by so many persons, after careful examination, that this boundary is not susceptible of settlement according to the precise words of the treaty.

This decision has been come to by Mr. Madison in 1802, by Mr. Jefferson in 1803, by Judge Sullivan, about the same time, and by the arbiter in 1831, and it has been acted on by nearly every Secretary of State of the U. States during the controversy from that time to this; for although in a case in dispute each party during the dispute endeavors to hold his own, I am not aware that any Secretary of State, or any President of the United States, has ever treated this subject otherwise than as one attended by that degree of uncertainty, that it could only be solved by an arbiter, or by a compromise. I would appeal to your candor, Sir, to say whether at this time, and under these circumstances, it is fair to speak of this disputed territory as belonging indisputably to one party, and to be yielded by way of concession, and for equivalents to the other. Any convention I may sign must be for a division of that which is in doubt or dispute; with any arrangement between the State of Maine and the General Government, I have nothing to do; and if, which God forbid, our endeavors at an amicable compromise should at last fail, I must hold that Great Britain retains her right, at least equal to the United States, to every part of the territory in dispute, until by a renewed reference, or by the skill of some more fortunate negotiator, this difference may be brought to a close.

I have now only to add a few observations upon the arguments contained in your own note.

Some stress is laid upon the fact, that the joint commissioners of the two Governments in 1817, directed the surveyors to run the north line from the St. Croix until it met water running into the St. Lawrence. The lines to be run were to ascertain the geographical facts of the case. No proceeding could be more proper. The claims of the two parties varied, and it was natural that, in the first instance, a line should be run north to the extent claimed by either party; where that line would reach, or what highlands or streams it might strike, was unknown; so much so that Mr. Gallatin, in his letter from Ghent, mentioned in my note of the 13th ult., expressed his doubts on this subject. His prediction turned out to be true. The point where the line strikes the Metis, was a point not fulfilling the words of the treaty. It did not divide the waters as desired, unless the Bay of Chaleur and the Gulf of St. Lawrence are considered to answer the description of the Atlantic Ocean. Mr. Gallatin was sensible of this, and intimates that if this fact created doubt, the lands about the Restigouche might be given up; but he forgets that in giving up this territory he gives up his argument; for he maintains in opposition to the British line of boundary, that it does not *continuously and in all its parts* divide the waters as required by the treaty. The American line was in this equally deficient, and it is useless, therefore, now to consider whether it would have been preferable to

the British line, if it had divided the waters of the St. Lawrence from those of the St. John.

To make even a plausible case for the American line, both the St. John and the Restigouche must be held to be rivers emptying into the Atlantic Ocean. The royal arbiter says it would be *hazardous* so to class them. I believe that whatever argument might be made in the case of the St. John, connected with the distinctions with which it was mentioned in the treaty, to consider the Restigouche as flowing into the Atlantic Ocean, would be more than hazardous — it would be most absurd. At all events, I would submit to you that no inference could be drawn from the commissioners in 1817 having ordered a north line to be run; the same commissioners, after drawing the line, having disagreed as to any conclusion from it.

I am rather surprised that an inspection of the map should lead us to such different views of the course of the rivers and of the coast, as stated by you. I find that the upper St. John and the Restigouche, so far from cutting at right angles the parallel lines of the coast and the St. Lawrence, as you say, run in their main course nearly parallel with them. I am not aware that the last is important, although it seems connected with your argument.

My inspection of these maps, and my examination of the documents, lead me to a very strong conviction, that the highlands contemplated by the negotiators of the treaty, were the only highlands then known to them at the head of the Penobscot, Kennebec, and the rivers west of the St. Croix; and that they did not precisely know how the north line from the St. Croix would strike them; and if it were not my wish to shorten this discussion, I believe a very good argument might be drawn from the words of the treaty in proof of this. In the negotiations with Mr. Livingston, and afterwards with Mr. McLane, this view seemed to prevail, and, as you are aware, there were proposals to search for these highlands to the west, where alone I believe they will be found to answer perfectly the description of the treaty. If this question should unfortunately go to a further reference, I should by no means despair of finding some confirmation of this view of the case.

I shall now, sir, close what I have to say on the controversial part of this question. I should not have treated of it at all, but from respect to the gentlemen from Maine, whose arguments you conveyed to me, and I shall certainly not renew it unless called upon by you to do so. Our immediate business is with the compromise of what is not otherwise to be settled, and argument and controversy, far from assisting that end, have ever a tendency to irritate and excite.

Referring, then, to our more immediate subject of a line by agreement, I deeply regret, on reading your observations and proposals, that we are yet so far asunder. I always thought this part of our duty better performed by conference than by correspondence, unless, indeed, we had the misfortune not to be able ultimately to agree, in which case it would certainly be necessary that our two countries should see clearly on paper how nearly we had approached to each other; and on whom the blame at last rested of leaving unsettled a question involving such serious con-

sequences. I would still recommend this course of personal discussion and conference; but, in the mean time, I proceed to consider the observations and proposals contained in your note.

It is sufficiently explained in my plan for a settlement, why I was anxious not to divide in two parts, by any new line of boundary, the Madawaska settlements; and I am sorry to say that the information I have since received, both as to local circumstances and the anxiety of the people themselves, tends strongly to confirm my impressions. At the same time, you will have seen that I was sensible that some good reason should be assigned why we should not be satisfied with what you justly term the otherwise perfect boundary of the St. John. In your reply you recognize the difficulties of the case, and do justice to our motives, but you state distinctly, on the part of your Government, that you can consent to no line which should bring us over the St. John, without some equivalent of territory, to be found out of the limits of that part which is in dispute; and you refer more particularly to a certain narrow strip lying between the north line and the river. This strip I have no power to give up; and I beg to add, that the refusal of my Government is founded simply on their objection to dispose arbitrarily of the persons and property of Her Majesty's subjects, living by preference under her authority — an objection which, you are aware, applies with peculiar force to the inhabitants of this part of New Brunswick.

I had hoped that the other equivalents which I had offered, combined with the sense entertained by the Government of the United States of the pressing importance of the case on the ground of humanity, would have been sufficient for the purpose I so anxiously desired; but perceiving, from your note, as well as from personal conversation, that concession upon this point is insisted upon, I might be disposed to consider whether my anxious desire to arrive at a friendly settlement would not justify me in yielding, however reluctantly, if the latter part of your proposal did not, if finally persevered in, forbid all hope of any settlement whatever.

The boundary you propose, supposing the British territory not to come over the St. John, is to run from the north side of that river, three miles above its junction with the Madawaska, over an arbitrary line, which my map does not exactly permit me to follow, until it reaches somewhere, the St. Francis. I need not examine this line in its precise details, because I am obliged frankly to state that it is inadmissible. I think I might, sir, appeal to your candid judgment to say whether this is a proposition of conciliation; whether, after all the antecedent discussions on this subject, it could be reasonably expected that, whatever might be the anxiety of my Government for a friendly settlement, I could be found with power to accede to such terms. I need not observe to you that this would give to Great Britain less than the award of the arbiter, while at the same time she would be called upon to give up what that arbiter awarded to her; and if I do not mistake you, the floatage of the lumber of Maine down the St. John, is also expected to be surrendered.

I must beg to say that I am quite at a loss to account for such a proposal. Your own principle of maintaining the great river as the best boundary, is abandoned; an arbitrary line is drawn which nobody ever

suspected before, and I can only suppose this course to be dictated by the general assumption that, notwithstanding all former admissions and decisions to the contrary, this territory, said to be in dispute, in truth belongs to one party, to be doled out as a favor to the other; an assumption that cannot for a moment be admitted, and which you, sir, with the records of your office before you, will hardly maintain.

The position in which this negotiation now stands, seems to prove what I have before ventured to advance, that it would have a better chance of success by conference than by correspondence; at all events, that we should soon arrive at ascertaining what we can or cannot do. Slow, unnecessarily slow, our progress has hitherto been, and the public seems somehow or other to have become informed that there are differences. I hope when we come to discuss them, that they will prove less serious than they are supposed to be; but it is very desirable that doubts and distrusts should be set at rest, and that public credit and the transactions of commerce should suffer the least possible disturbance. For although should this negotiation unfortunately fail, it will be our duty immediately to place it in some new course of further reference, it is not to be disguised that such a result must be productive of considerable public anxiety and disappointment.

What I have said in relation to the Madawaska settlements, will, I trust, sufficiently prove my disposition to approach such a discussion with the true spirit of conciliation, and I trust you will permit me to express a hope that it will be met with a corresponding feeling.

Before concluding I wish to add a few words respecting the line of the St. John to one of its sources, and the navigation for certain purposes of that river. It may be true that the district between the St. John and the highlands west of the St. Francis, may be of some extent, but your own surveyors will confirm to you that it is of very little value, either for cultivation or for timber. Is it reasonable, that in the division of an object in dispute, its intrinsic value should be wholly disregarded, and its extent alone considered?

I would further suggest for your consideration, whether supposing the division by the King of the Netherlands to be admitted to supply fairly the equity of the case between the parties, what is proposed to be added to Great Britain, namely, the strip on the 45th parallel of latitude, and the use of the navigation of the St. John be not an ample compensation for what we ask in return, namely, that barren strip above the upper St. John, which is wanted for no other purpose than as a boundary for which purpose it is admitted on all sides to be most convenient.

The right to use the St. John for floating down the lumber of Maine on the same terms as the river is used by the Queen's subjects, is now treated as a matter of light importance. This is not uncommon when a concession of any kind is about to be yielded; but I beg to remind you that this was not formerly so considered. It has been repeatedly solicited and invariably refused, and no minister of Great Britain has before been permitted to connect this concession with settlement of the boundary. It is considered by my Government as a very important concession. I am sure that it must be considered by all persons in Maine connected

with the lumber trade as not only valuable, but indispensable, and I am compelled to add, that I am empowered to allow this privilege only in the event of a settlement of the boundary on satisfactory terms. It is said in the memorandum of the Maine commissioners that this conceded navigation will be as useful to the town of St. John as to the lumberers of Maine; but it will not escape you that, even if this be so, it is a concession necessary to give any value whatever to so bulky an article as lumber, which being not otherwise disposable, would bear any reasonable toll which the provincial authorities of New Brunswick might think it expedient to levy upon it. Further, it should not be forgotten, that the timber, once at the mouth of the St. John, will have the privilege of reaching the British as well as other markets, and lastly, that it is a very different thing to hold a privilege of this important description by right or by mere sufferance, to be granted or withheld at pleasure.

I have to apologize for entering into these details in treating of the great question with which we are occupied, but they seem called for by observations in the paper you send me.

I beg, sir, you will be assured of my unfeigned and distinguished consideration.

ASHBURTON.

HON. DANIEL WEBSTER, &c. &c.

Lord Ashburton to Mr. Webster.

WASHINGTON, July 16, 1842.

Sir: There is a further question of disputed boundary between Great Britain and the United States, called the northwest boundary, about which we have had some conferences; and I now proceed to state the terms which I am ready to agree to for the settlement of this difference.

As the principal object in dispute is to be given up by Great Britain, I trust, sir, that you will here again recognize the spirit of friendly conciliation which has guided my Government in disposing of these questions.

I have already sufficiently discussed with you the boundaries between Her Majesty's provinces and the United States, from the monument at the head of the river St. Croix, to the monument on the river St. Lawrence, near the village of St. Regis.

The commissioners under the sixth article of the treaty of Ghent, succeeded in continuing this boundary from St. Regis, through the St. Lawrence and the great northern lakes, up to a point in the channel between Lake Huron and Lake Superior.

A further continuation of this boundary, from this point through Lake Superior to the Lake of the Woods, was confided to the same commission, under the seventh article of the treaty of Ghent, but they were unfortunately unable to agree, and have consequently left this portion of the boundary undetermined. Its final settlement has been much desired by both governments, and urgently pressed by communications from Mr. Secretary Forsyth to Mr. Fox, in 1839 and 1840.

What I have now to propose, cannot, I feel assured, be otherwise than satisfactory for this purpose.

The commissioners, who failed in their endeavors to make this settlement, differed on two points :

First, as to the appropriation of an island called St. George's Island, lying in the water communication between Lake Huron and Lake Superior. And

Secondly, as to the boundary through the water communications from Lake Superior to the Lake of the Woods.

The first point I am ready to give up to you, and you are no doubt aware that it is the only object of any real value in this controversy. The island of St. George's is reputed to contain 25,920 acres of very fertile land ; but the other things connected with these boundaries being satisfactorily arranged, a line shall be drawn so as to throw this island within the limits of the United States.

In considering the second point, it really appears of little importance to either party how the line shall be determined through the wild country between Lake Superior and the Lake of the Woods, but it is important that some line should be fixed and known.

The American commissioner asked for the line from Lake Superior up the river Kamarastiquid to the lake called Dog lake, which he supposed to be the same as that called Long lake in the treaties, thence through Sturgeon lake to the Lac la Pluie, to that point where the two lines assumed by the commissioners again meet.

The British commissioners, on the other hand, contended for a line from the southwestern extremity, at a point called Le Fond du Lac to the middle of the mouth of the estuary or lake of St. Louis river ; thence up that river, through Vermilion River to Lac la Pluie.

Attempts were made to compromise these differences, but they failed : apparently more from neither party being willing to give up the island of St. George, than from much importance being attached to any other part of the case. Upon the line from Lake Superior to the Lake of the Woods both commissioners agreed to abandon their respective claims, and to adopt a middle course, for which the American commissioner admitted that there was some ground of preference.

This was from Pigeon river, a point between Kamarastiquid and the Fond du Lac ; and although there were differences as to the precise point near the mouth of Pigeon river, where the line should begin, neither party seem to have attached much importance to this part of the subject.

I would propose that the line be taken from a point about six miles south of Pigeon river, where the Grand Portage commences on the lake, and continued along the line of the said Portage, alternately by land and water, to Lac la Pluie, the existing route by land and water remaining common to both parties. This line has the advantage of being known and attended with no doubt or uncertainty in running it.

In making the important concession of this boundary, of the Isle of St. George, I must attach a condition to it of accommodation, which experience has proved to be necessary in the navigation of the great waters which bound the two countries, an accommodation which can, I apprehend, be no possible inconvenience to either.

This was asked by the British commissioner, in the course of the attempts at compromise above alluded to, but nothing was done because he was not then prepared, as I am now, to yield the property and sovereignty of St. George's Island.

The first of these two cases is at the head of lake St. Clair, where the river of that name empties into it from lake Huron.

It is represented that the channel bordering the United States coast in this part, is not only the best for navigation, but with some winds, is the only serviceable passage.

I do not know that under such circumstances the passage of a British vessel would be refused; but on a final settlement of boundaries, it is desirable to stipulate for what the commissioners would probably have settled, had the facts been known to them.

The other case, of nearly the same description, occurs on the St. Lawrence, some miles above the boundary of St. Regis.

In distributing the islands of the river by the commissioners, Barnhart's Island and the Long Sault islands, were assigned to America. This part of the river has very formidable rapids, and the only safe passage is on the southern or American side, between those islands and the main land. We want a clause in our present treaty to say that for a short distance, namely, from the upper end of the upper Long Sault island to the lower end of Barnhart's island, the several channels of the river shall be used in common by the boatmen of the two countries.

I am not aware that these very reasonable demands are likely to meet with any objection, especially when the United States will have surrendered to them all that is essential in the boundary I have now to propose to you.

I beg you will be assured, Sir, of my unfeigned and distinguished consideration.

ASHBURTON.

HON. DANIEL WEBSTER, &c. &c.

Mr. Webster to Lord Ashburton.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, }
Washington, July 27, 1842. }

My Lord: I have now to propose to your lordship a line of division embracing the disputed portions of the boundary between the United States and the British provinces of New Brunswick and the Canadas, with its considerations and equivalents, such as conform I believe in substance, to the result of the many conferences and discussions which have taken place between us.

The acknowledged territory of the United States and England, join upon each other from the Atlantic Ocean to the eastern foot of the Rocky Mountains, a distance of more than three thousand miles. From the ocean to the source of the St. Croix, the line of division has been ascertained and fixed by agreement; from the source of the St. Croix to a

point near St. Regis, on the river St. Lawrence, it may be considered as unsettled, or controverted; from this last mentioned point along the St. Lawrence and through the lakes, it is settled, until it reaches the water communication between Lake Huron and Lake Superior. At this point the commissioners under the 7th article of the treaty of Ghent, found a subject of disagreement which they could not overcome, in deciding upon which branch, or channel, the line should proceed till it should reach a point in the middle of St. Mary's river, about one mile above St. George's or Sugar Island.

From the middle of the water communication between the two lakes at the point last mentioned, the commissioners extended the line through the remaining part of that water communication, and across Lake Superior to a point north of Isle Royale; but they could not agree in what direction the line should run from the last mentioned point, nor where it should leave Lake Superior, nor how it should be extended to the Rainy Lake, or Lac la Pluie. From this last mentioned lake they agreed on the line to the northwesternmost line of the Lake of the Woods, which they found to be in latitude 47° 23' 55". The line extends according to existing treaties, due south from this point to the 49th parallel of north latitude, and by that parallel to the Rocky Mountains.

Not being able to agree upon the whole line, the commissioners, under the 7th article, did not make any joint report to their respective Governments so far as they agreed on any part of the line, that part has been considered settled; but it may be well to give validity to those portions of the line by a treaty.

To complete the boundary line, therefore, and to remove all doubts and disputes, it is necessary for the two Governments to come to an agreement on these points.

1st. What shall be the line on the northeastern and western limits of the United States from the St. Croix to the St. Lawrence? This is by far the most important and difficult of the subjects, and involves the principal questions of equivalents and compensations.

2d. What shall be the course of the boundary from the point where the commissioners, under the 6th article of the treaty of Ghent, terminated their labors, to wit, a point in the Neebish channel, in the Muddy lake in the water communication between lake Huron and lake Superior, to a point in the middle of St. Mary's river, one mile above Sugar Island? This question is important, as it involves the ownership of that island.

3d. What shall be the line from the point north of Isle Royal, in Lake Superior, to which the commissioners of the two governments arrived, by agreement, to the Rainy lake; and also to confirm those parts of the line to which the said commissioners agreed.

Besides agreeing upon the line of division through these controverted portions of the boundary, you have suggested also, as the proposed settlement provides, upon the ground of compromise and equivalent, that boats belonging to her Majesty's subjects may pass the falls of the Long Sault islands; and that the passage between the Islands at or near the junction of the river St. Clair, with the lake of that name, should be

severally free and open to the vessels of both countries. There appears no reasonable objection to what is requested in these particulars; and on the part of the United States it is desirable that their vessels in proceeding from Lake Erie into the Detroit river, should have the privilege of passing between Bois Blanc, an island belonging to England, and the Canadian shore, the deeper and better channel being on that side.

The line, then, now proposed to be agreed to, may thus be described: Beginning at the monument at the source of the river St. Croix, as designated and agreed to by the commissioners under the 5th article of the treaty of 1794, between the Governments of the United States and Great Britain; thence, north, following the exploring line run and marked by the surveyors of the two Governments in the years 1817 and 1818, under the fifth article of the treaty of Ghent, to its intersection with the river St. John, and to the middle of the channel thereof; thence up the middle of the main channel of the said river St. John, to the mouth of the river St. Francis; thence up the middle of the channel of the said river St. Francis, and of the lake through which it flows, to the outlet of the lake Poh-nagamook; thence, southwesterly in a straight line, to a point of the northwest branch of the river St. John, which point shall be ten miles distant from the main branch of the St. John, in a straight line, and in the nearest direction; but if the said point shall be found to be less than seven miles from the nearest point of the summit or crest of the highlands that divide those rivers which empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence from those which fall into the St. John, then the said point shall be made to recede down the said river to a point seven miles in a straight line, from the said summit or crest, thence, in a straight line, in a course about south, eight degrees west, to the point where the parallel of latitude of 45 25 north intersects the southwest branch of the St. John; thence southerly by the said branch, to the source thereof in the highlands at the Metjarmette portage; thence down along the said highlands which divide the waters which empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence, from those which fall into the Atlantic Ocean, to the head of Hall's stream; thence down the middle of said stream till the line thus run intersects the old line of boundary, surveyed and marked by Valentine & Collins, previous to the year 1774, as the 45th degree of latitude, and which has been known and understood to be the line of actual division between the State of New York and Vermont, on one side, and the British province of Canada on the other; and from said point of intersection, west, along the said dividing line, as heretofore known and understood, to the Iroquois or St. Lawrence river; and from the place where the joint commissioners terminated their labors under the 6th article of the treaty of Ghent, to wit, at a point in the Neebish channel, near Muddy lake, the line shall run into and along the ship channel between St. Joseph and St. Tammany islands, to the division of the channel at or near the head of St. Joseph's island, thence turning eastwardly and northwardly, around the lower end of St. George's or Sugar island, and following the middle of the channel which divides St. George's from St. Joseph's island, thence up the east Neebish channel, nearest to St. George's island, through the middle of lake George, thence west of Jonas

island into St. Mary's river, to a point in the middle of that river, about one mile above St. George's or Sugar island, so as to appropriate and assign the said island to the United States; thence, adopting the line traced on the maps by the commissioners, through the river St. Mary and lake Superior, to a point north of Isle Royal, in said lake, one hundred yards to the north and east of Isle Chapeau, which last mentioned island lies near the northeastern point of Isle Royale, where the line marked by the commissioners terminates; and from the last mentioned point, south-westerly through the middle of the sound near Isle Royale and the northwestern main land, to the mouth of Pigeon river, and up the said river to and through the North and South Fowl lakes, to the lakes at the height of land between lake Superior and the lake of the Woods; thence, along the water communication, to lake Saisaginaga, and through that lake; thence to and through Cypress lake, Lac du Bois Blanc, Lac la Croix, Little Vermilion lake, and lake Nawecan, and through the several smaller lakes, straits, or streams, connecting the lakes here mentioned to that point to Lac la Pluie or Rainy lake, at the Chaudiere Falls; from which the commissioners traced the line to the most north-western point of the Lake of the Woods; thence along the said line to the said most northwestern point, being in latitude 49 deg. 23m. 5s. north, and in longitude 95 deg. 14m. 38s. west from the observatory at Greenwich, thence according to existing treaties, the line extends due south to its intersection with the 49th parallel of north latitude, and along that parallel to the Rocky Mountains. It being understood that all the water communications and all the usual portages along the line from lake Superior to the Lake of the Woods, and also Grand Portage from the shore of Lake Superior to the Pigeon river, as now actually used, shall be free and open to the use of the subjects and citizens of both countries.

It is desirable to follow the description and the exact line of the original treaty as far as practicable. There is reason to think that "Long lake," mentioned in the treaty of 1783, meant merely the estuary of the Pigeon river, as no lake called "Long lake" was immediately adjoining lake Superior," or any other water strictly conforming to the idea of a lake, is found in that quarter. This opinion is strengthened by the fact, that the words of the treaty would seem to imply that the water intended as "Long lake" was immediately adjoining lake Superior. In one respect an exact compliance with the words of the treaty is not practicable. There is no continuous water communication between lake Superior and the Lake of the Woods, as the Lake of the Woods is known to discharge its waters through the Red river of the north into Hudson's bay. The dividing height or ridge between the eastern sources of the tributaries of the Lake of the Woods and the western sources of Pigeon river, appears, by authentic maps, to be distant forty miles from the mouth of Pigeon river, on the shore of lake Superior.

It is not improbable, that in the imperfection of knowledge which then existed of those remote countries, and perhaps misled by Mitchell's map, the negotiators of the treaty of 1783 supposed the Lake of the Woods to discharge its waters into lake Superior. The broken and difficult nature

of the water communication from lake Superior to the Lake of the Woods renders numerous portages necessary, and it is right that these water communications and these portages should make a common highway, where necessary, for the use of the subjects and citizens of both Governments.

When the proposed line shall be properly described in the treaty, the grant by England of the right to use the waters of the river St. John for the purpose of transporting to the mouth of that river all the timber and agricultural products raised in Maine, on the waters of the St. John, or any of its tributaries, without subjection to any discriminating toll, duty, or disability, is to be inserted. Provision should also be made for quieting and confirming the titles of all persons having claims to lands on either side of the line, whether such titles be perfect or inchoate only, and to the same extent to which they would have been confirmed by their respective Governments, had no change taken place. What has been agreed to, also, in respect to the common use of certain passages in the rivers and lakes, as already stated, must be made matter of regular stipulation.

Your lordship is also informed, by the correspondence which formerly took place between the two Governments, that there is a fund arising from the sale of timber, concerning which fund an understanding was had some years ago. It will be expedient to provide by the treaty that this arrangement shall be carried into effect.

A proper article will be necessary to provide for the creation of a commission to run and mark some parts of the line between Maine and the British Provinces.

These several objects appear to me to embrace all respecting the boundary line and its equivalents, which the treaty needs to contain as matters of stipulation between the United States and England.

I have the honor to be, with high consideration, your lordship's most obedient servant,

DANIEL WEBSTER.

Lord Ashburton to Mr. Webster.

WASHINGTON, July 29, 1842.

SIR: I have attentively considered the statements contained in the letter you did me the honor of addressing me the 27th of this month, of the terms agreed to for the settlement of boundaries between Her Majesty's Provinces and the United States, being the final result of the many conferences we have had on the subject. This settlement appears substantially correct in all its parts, and we may now proceed, without further delay, to draw up the treaty. Several of the articles for this purpose are already agreed, and our most convenient course will be to take and consider them singly. I would beg leave to recommend, that as we have excellent charts of the country through which the boundary, which failed of being settled by the commissioners under the seventh article of the Treaty of Ghent, is partially marked, that it would be advisable to

make good the delineation on those charts, which would spare to both parties the unnecessary expense of new commissioners, and a new survey. In this case the only commission required would be to run the line on the boundary of Maine.

The stipulations for the greater facility of the navigation of the river St. Lawrence, and of the two passages between the upper lakes, appear evidently desirable for general accommodation, and I cannot refuse the reciprocal claim made by you to render common the passage from Lake Erie into the Detroit river. This must be done by declaring the several passages in those parts free to both parties.

I should remark also, that the free use of the navigation of the Long Sault passage on the St. Lawrence, must be extended to below Barab's Island for the purpose of clearing those rapids.

I beg leave to repeat to you, sir, the assurance of my most distinguished consideration.

ASHBURTON.

Hon. DANIEL WEBSTER, &c. &c.

Lord Ashburton to Mr. Webster.

WASHINGTON, Aug. 9, 1842.

SIR : It appears desirable that some explanation between us should be recorded by correspondence respecting the 5th article of the treaty signed by us this day, for the settlement of the boundaries between Great Britain and the United States.

By that article of the treaty it is stipulated that certain payments shall be made by the Government of the United States to the States of Maine and Massachusetts. It has, of course, been understood that my negotiations have been with the Government of the United States, and the introduction of terms of agreement between the General Government and the States would have been irregular and inadmissible, if it had not been deemed expedient to bring the whole of these transactions within the purview of the treaty. There may not be wanting analogous cases to justify this proceeding, but it seems proper that I should have confirmed by you, that my Government incurs no responsibility for these engagements, of the precise nature and object of which I am uninformed, nor have I considered it necessary to make inquiry concerning them.

I beg, sir, to renew to you the assurances of my high consideration.

ASHBURTON.

Hon. Daniel Webster, &c. &c.

Mr. Webster to Lord Ashburton.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, }
Washington, Aug. 9, 1842. }

MY LORD : I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your note of the 9th August, with respect to the object and intention of the 5th

article of the treaty. What you say in regard to that subject is quite correct. It purports to contain no stipulation on the part of Great Britain, nor is any responsibility supposed to be incurred by it, on the part of your Government.

I renew, my Lord, the assurance of my distinguished consideration.

DANIEL WEBSTER.

Lord Ashburton, &c. &c.

Mr. Webster to the Commissioners of Maine and Massachusetts.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, }
Washington, July 12, 1842. }

GENTLEMEN: I place in your hands a note received yesterday from Lord Ashburton; it would have been transmitted sooner, but I was not able to read it myself until this morning.

I shall have the honor of inviting a conference with you at an early opportunity, being very desirous of making progress in the business in which we are engaged, and satisfied that the various parties in interest are as well prepared now to come to a decision as they are likely to be at any time hereafter.

I have the honor, &c.,

DANIEL WEBSTER.

The Honorable Commissioners of Maine and Massachusetts.

Mr. Webster to the Maine Commissioners.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, }
Washington, July 15, 1842. }

GENTLEMEN: You have had an opportunity of reading Lord Ashburton's note to me of the 11th of July. Since that date, I have had full and frequent conferences with him respecting the eastern boundary, and believe I understand what is practicable to be done on that subject, so far as he is concerned. In these conferences, he made no positive or binding propositions, though perhaps it would be more desirable, under present circumstances, that such proposition should proceed from the side of the United States. I have reason to believe, however, that he would agree to a line of boundary between the United States and the British provinces of Canada and New Brunswick, such as is described in a paper accompanying this, (marked B,) and identified by my signature.

In establishing the line between the monument and the St. John, it is thought necessary to adhere to that run and marked by the surveyors of the two Governments, in 1817 and 1818. There is no doubt that the line recently run by Major Graham is more entirely accurate; but, being an *ex parte* line, there would be objections to agreeing to it without examination, and thus another survey would become necessary. Grants and settlements, also, have been made, in conformity with the former

line, and its errors are so inconsiderable, that it is not thought that their correction is a sufficient object to disturb these settlements. Similar considerations have had great weight in adjusting the line in other parts of it.

The territories in dispute between the two countries contain 12,629 square miles, equal to 7,697,280 acres.

By the line described in the accompanying paper, there will be assigned to the United States 7,015 square miles, equal to 4,489,600 acres; and to England 5,012, equal to 3,207,680 acres.

By the award of the King of the Netherlands there was assigned to the United States 7,908 square miles, 5,061,120 acres; to England, 4,119 square miles, 2,636,160 acres.

The territory proposed to be relinquished to England, south of the line of the King of the Netherlands, is, as you will see, the mountain range, from the upper part of the St. Francis river to the meeting of the two contested lines of boundary, at the Metjarmette Portage in the highlands, near the source of the St. John. This mountain tract contains 893 square miles, equal to 571,520 acres. It is supposed to be of no value for cultivation or settlement. On this point you will see, herewith, a letter from Captain Talcott, who has been occupied two summers in exploring the line of the highlands, and is intimately acquainted with the territory. The line leaves to the United States between the base of the hills and the left bank of the St. John, and lying along the river, a territory of 657,280 acres, embracing, without doubt, all the valuable land south of the St. Francis and west of the St. John. Of the general division of territory, it is believed, and it may be safely said, that while the portion remaining with the United States is, in quantity, seven twelfths, in value it is at least four fifths of the whole.

Nor is it supposed that the possession of the mountain region is of any importance, in connection with the defence of the country, or any military operations. It lies below all the accustomed practicable passages for troops into and out of Lower Canada; that is to say, the Chaudiere, Lake Champlain, Richelieu, and the St. Lawrence. If an army with its *matériel* could possibly pass into Canada, over these mountains, it would only find itself on the bank of the St. Lawrence below Quebec, and on the other hand, it is not conceivable that an invading enemy from Lower Canada would attempt a passage in this direction, leaving the Chaudiere on one hand and the route by Madawaska on the other.

If this line shall be agreed to, on the part of the United States, I suppose that the British Minister would, as an equivalent, stipulate, first, for the use of the river St. John, for the conveyance of the timber growing on any of its branches, to tidewater, free from all discriminating tolls, impositions, or disabilities of any kind, the timber enjoying all the privileges of British colonial timber. All opinions concur, that this privilege of navigation must greatly enhance the value of the territory and the timber growing thereon, and prove exceedingly useful to the people of Maine. Second, that Rouse's Point, in Lake Champlain, and the lands heretofore supposed to be within the limits of New Hampshire, Vermont, and New York, but which a correct ascertainment of the 45th parallel of latitude shows to be in Canada, should be surrendered to the United States.

It is probable also, that the disputed line of boundary in Lake Superior might be so adjusted as to leave a disputed island within the United States.

These cessions on the part of England would enure partly to the benefit of the States of New Hampshire, Vermont, and New York, but principally to the United States. The consideration on the part of England, for making them, would be the manner agreed upon for adjusting the eastern boundary. The price of the cession, therefore, whatever it might be, would in fairness belong to the two States interested in the manner of that adjustment.

Under the influence of these considerations, I am authorized to say, that if the commissioners of the two States assent to the line as described in the accompanying paper, the United States will undertake to pay to these States the sum of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars, to be divided between them in equal moieties; and, also, to undertake for the settlement and payment of the expenses incurred by those States for the maintenance of the civil posse; and, also, for a survey which it was found necessary to make.

The line suggested, with the compensations and equivalents which have been stated, is now submitted for your consideration. That it is all which might have been hoped for, looking to the strength of the American claim, can hardly be said. But, as the settlement of a controversy of such duration is a matter of high importance, as equivalents of undoubted value are offered, as longer postponement and delay would lead to further inconvenience, and to the incurring of further expenses, and as no better occasion, or perhaps any other occasion, for settling the boundary by agreement, and on the principle of equivalents, is ever likely to present itself, the Government of the United States hope that the commissioners of the two States will find it to be consistent with their duty to assent to the line proposed, and to the terms and conditions attending the proposition.

The President has felt the deepest anxiety for an amicable settlement of the question, in a manner honorable to the country, and such as should preserve the rights and interests of the states concerned. From the moment of the announcement of Lord Ashburton's mission, he has sedulously endeavored to pursue a course the most respectful toward the states, and the most useful to their interests, as well as the most becoming to the character and dignity of the Government. He will be happy, if the result shall be such as will satisfy Maine and Massachusetts, as well as the rest of the country. With these sentiments on the part of the President, and with the conviction that no more advantageous arrangement can be made, the subject is now referred to the grave deliberation of the commissioners.

I have the honor to be, with great respect,

Your obedient servant,

DANIEL WEBSTER.

*To the Hon. the Commissioners of Maine.**

* Same, *mutatis mutandis*, to the Commissioners of Massachusetts.

B. Beginning at the monument at the source of the river St. Croix, as designated by the commissioners under the fifth article of the treaty of 1794, between the Government of the United States and Great Britain; thence north, following the exploring line run and marked by the surveyors of the two Governments in the years 1817 and 1818, under the fifth article of the treaty of Ghent, to its intersection with the river St. John, and to the middle of the channel thereof; thence up the middle of the main channel of the said river St. John, to the mouth of the river St. Francis; thence up the middle of the channel of said river, and of the lakes through which it flows, to the outlet of the lake Pohenagamook; thence southwesterly in a straight line to a point on the northwest branch of the river St. John, which point shall be ten miles distant from the main branch of the St. John, in a straight line and in the nearest direction: but if the said point shall be found to be less than seven miles from the nearest point of the highlands that divide those rivers which empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence from those which fall into the Atlantic Ocean, then the said point shall be made to recede down the said river to a point seven miles in a straight line from the said dividing highlands: thence in a straight line, in a course about south, eight degrees west, to the point where the parallel of latitude of 46° 25' intersects the southwest branch of the St. John; thence southerly, by the said branch, to the source thereof, in the highlands at the Metjarmette Portage; thence down along the said highlands around the head waters of Indian Stream, and so on to the highlands which divide that stream on the one hand, and Hall's stream on the other; thence down the middle of said stream till the line thus run intersects the old line of boundary surveyed and marked by Valentine and Collins, previous to the year 1774, as the 45th deg. of latitude, and which has been known and understood to be the line of actual division between the States of New York and Vermont on one side, and the British Province of Canada on the other, as heretofore known and understood, to the Iroquois or St. Lawrence river.

Captain Talcott to Mr. Webster.

WASHINGTON, July 14, 1842

SIR: The territory within the lines mentioned by you contains eight hundred and ninety-three square miles, equal to five hundred and seventy-one thousand one hundred and twenty acres. It is a long and narrow tract upon the mountains or highlands, the distance from lake Pohenagamook to the Metjarmette Portage being one hundred and ten miles. The territory is barren, and without timber of value, and I should estimate that nineteen parts out of twenty are unfit for cultivation. Along eighty miles of this territory, the highlands throw up into irregular eminences of different heights, and, though observing a general northeast and southwest direction, are not brought well into line. Some of these elevations are over three thousand feet above the sea.

The formation is primitive siliceous rock, with slate resting upon it, around the basis. Between the eminences are morasses and swamps, throughout which beds of moss, of luxuriant growth, rest on and cover the rocks and earth beneath. The growth is such as is usual in mountain regions on the continent, in high latitudes. On some of the ridges and eminences birch and maple are found; on others, spruce and fir; and in the swamps spruce intermixed with cedar; but the wood every where is insignificant, and of stunted growth. It will readily be seen, therefore, that for cultivation, or as capable of furnishing the means of human subsistence, the lands are of no value.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

A. TALCOTT, Commissioner.

Hon. Daniel Webster, Secretary of State.

Commissioners of Massachusetts to Mr. Webster.

WASHINGTON, July 20, 1842.

SIR: We have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your communication of 15th July, addressed to us as commissioners of Massachusetts, authorized to act in her behalf in the settlement of the controversy concerning the northeastern boundary of the United States. The proposal therein presented for our assent, in behalf of the Government we represent, to the establishment of the conventional boundary indicated in your communication, and upon the terms and equivalents therein set forth, has received our careful consideration, and without further delay we submit the following reply:

After the many interviews which we have had the pleasure to hold with you during the progress of the negotiation which is drawing to its close, it is unnecessary for us to express our full concurrence in the sentiment, that the line suggested, with its compensation and equivalents, is not all which might have been hoped for, in view of the strength of the American claim to the territory in dispute. But inasmuch as in the progress of a negotiation, conducted with great deliberation, every proposition has been put forth, which any party, in whatever manner, and to whatever extent it may be interested, has been disposed to submit for consideration and adoption, and the ultimate point has been reached, at which negotiation must result in a compact, or the interruption of further effort for its accomplishment, we proceed to discharge the remaining duty which is devolved upon us.

We are fully aware of the importance of the act that we are called upon to perform. It is not less than the relinquishment, by the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, of territory which she always claimed to be a part of her possessions, and to which we believe she has a clear and indisputable title. So strong is the conviction of the right of Massachusetts and Maine to the undisturbed enjoyment of the land constituting what is called the disputed territory, by force of the treaty which terminated the war of the Revolution, that she would prefer an appeal to the

same arbitrament by which the acknowledgment of her right was originally obtained, to a surrender, without just equivalents, of any portion of their territory. Still, she is aware that the Government and people of the United States desire to preserve peace and friendly relations with other nations, so long as they can be maintained with honor, by concessions which, not a just policy alone, but that which is liberal and magnanimous, may require. She partakes of the common spirit, and its influence pervades all her actions throughout this negotiation.

There are other considerations of weight in the decision of this question. Though the title of Massachusetts to the lands in dispute is believed to be perfect, it is not to be overlooked that they have been the subjects of controversy through many years; that attempts by negotiation and through the intervention of an umpire, have been unsuccessfully made, to extinguish a conflicting claim; and that the nations which are now seeking by renewed negotiation to put a period to the protracted strife, while desiring peace, have been brought to the verge of destructive war, through dissensions incident to a disputed boundary. Should this negotiation fail of a successful issue, the alternative offered is a renewed submission of our rights to the determination of others. Past experience enforces the belief that other years must elapse, and great inconveniences be felt, before a decision can be obtained; and the same monitor suggests the obvious truth, that however the title of Massachusetts and Maine, and of the United States, may be firmly established in justice, it is not equally certain that it would be confirmed by the tribunal from whose decision, whatever it might be, no appeal could honorably be taken.

But the considerations which most powerfully impel the State of Massachusetts to acquiesce in terms for a treaty, that your communication indicates, are the known desire of the people of the United States for a speedy settlement of the vexed question of the boundary, and the request of the general government, expressed through its constitutional organs, that Massachusetts would yield her consent to an arrangement which that government deems to be reasonable. The State we have the honor to represent would be slow to disappoint the hopes of the nation, and reluctant to reject terms which the government of the United States urges her to accept, as being compatible in the estimation of that government, with the interest of the State, and essential to the complete adjustment of difficulties, which the security of national peace demands.

Whether the national boundary suggested by you be suitable or unsuitable, whether the compensations that Great Britain offers to the United States for the territory conceded to her be adequate or inadequate, and whether the treaty which shall be effected shall be honorable to the country or incompatible with its rights and dignity, are questions, not for Massachusetts, but for the General Government, upon its responsibility to the whole country, to decide. It is for the State to determine for what equivalents they will relinquish to the United States her interest in certain lands in the disputed territory, so that they may be made available to the Government of the United States, in the establishment of the Northeastern Boundary, and in a general settlement of all matters in controversy between Great Britain and the United States.

In this view of the subject, and with the understanding that by the words "the nearest point of the highlands," in your description of the proposed line of boundary, is meant the nearest point of the crest of the highlands; that the right to the free navigation of the river St. John shall include the right to the free transportation thereupon of all products of the soil as well as of the forest; and that the pecuniary compensation to be paid by the Federal Government to the State of Massachusetts shall be increased to the sum of one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, the State of Massachusetts through her commissioners, hereby relinquishes to the United States her interest in the lands which will be excluded from the dominion of the United States by the establishment of the boundary aforesaid.

We have the honor to be, with the greatest respect,

Your obedient servants,

ABBOTT LAWRENCE,
JOHN MILLS,
CHARLES ALLEN.

Hon. Daniel Webster, Secretary of State.

The Maine Commissioners to Mr. Webster.

WASHINGTON, July 22, 1842.

SIR: The undersigned, Commissioners of the State of Maine on the subject of the Northeastern Boundary, have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your note, addressed to them under date of the 15th inst., with enclosures therein referred to. The proposition first submitted by the special minister of Great Britain, on the subject of the boundary, having been disagreed to, and the proposition made on the part of the United States, with the assent of the commissioners of Maine and Massachusetts, having been rejected as inadmissible, coupled with the expression of surprise that it should have been made; and Lord Ashburton, in the same communication, having intimated a preference for conference rather than correspondence, and having omitted in his note to make any new proposition, except a qualified withdrawal of a part of his former one, we learn from your note that you "have had full and frequent conferences with him respecting the northeastern boundary," and that you "believe you understand what is practicable to be done on that subject, so far as he (Lord Ashburton) is concerned." We also learn, that "in these conferences he has made no positive or binding proposition, thinking, perhaps, it would be more desirable, under present circumstances, that such a proposition should proceed from the side of the United States;" but that you have reason to believe that he would agree to a line of boundary such as is described in the paper accompanying your note (marked B;) and also, that you entertain the conviction, "that no more advantageous arrangement can be made;" and, with this conviction, you refer the subject to the grave deliberation of the commissioners.

Regarding this as substantially a proposition on the part of the United States, with the knowledge and assent of Great Britain, and as the one most favorable to us, which, under any circumstances, the latter government would either offer or accept, the undersigned have not failed to bestow upon it the grave deliberation and consideration which its nature and importance, and their responsible position, demand. If the result of that deliberation should not fully justify the expressed hopes or meet the expectations and views of the Government of the United States, we beg you to be assured that such failure will be the result of their firm convictions of duty to the state they represent, and will not arise from any want of an anxious desire, on their part, to bring the controversy to an amicable, just, and honorable termination. In coming to this consideration, they have not been unmindful that the state of Maine, with the firmest conviction of her absolute right to the whole territory drawn into the controversy, and sustained, as she has been, by the unanimous concurrence of her sister states, and of the Government of the Union, repeatedly expressed and cordially given, and without a wavering doubt as to the perfect practicability of marking the treaty line upon the face of the earth, according to her claim, has yet, at all times, manifested a spirit of forbearance and patience under what she could not but deem unfounded pretensions, and unwarranted delays and irritating encroachments.

In the midst of all the provocations to resistance, and to the assertion and maintenance of her extreme rights, she has never forgotten that she is a member of the Union, and she has endeavored to deserve the respect, sympathy, and coöperation of her sister states, by pursuing a course equally removed from pusillanimity and rashness, and by maintaining her difficult position in a spirit that would forbear much for peace, but would yield nothing through fear. At all times, and under all circumstances, she has been ready and anxious to bring the controversy to a close upon terms honorable and equitable, and to unite in any proper scheme to effect that object. In this spirit, and with these convictions, Maine instantly and cheerfully acceded to the proposals of the General Government made through you to appoint commissioners.

That no obstacle might be interposed to the successful issue of the negotiation, her legislature gave to her commissioners ample and unlimited powers, which, but for the presumed necessity of the case, her people would be slow to yield to any functionaries. Her commissioners, thus appointed and thus empowered, assumed the duty imposed upon them in the spirit and with the views of the government and people of Maine. They came to the negotiation with a firm conviction of her rights, but with a disposition and determination to meet a conciliatory proposition for a conventional line in a similar spirit, and to yield for any reasonable equivalent, all that they presumed would be asked or desired by the other party. They, with the other citizens of Maine, were not unapprised of the fact so often alluded to in our former communications, that England had long been anxious to obtain the undisputed possession of that portion of the territory which would enable her to maintain a direct and uninterrupted communication between her provinces. So far as they

could learn from any source, this was the only professed object she had in view, and the only one which has been regarded as in contemplation.

With this understanding, the undersigned at once decided to yield, upon the most liberal terms, this long-sought convenience; and they indulged the confident expectation, that such a concession would at once meet all the wants and wishes of the English government, and bring the mission to a speedy and satisfactory close. When, therefore, we were met at the outset by a proposition which required the cession on our part of all the territory north of the St. John river, and enough of the territory on the south to include the Madawaska settlement, extending at least fifty miles up that river, with no other equivalent to us than the limited right to float timber down that river, and to the United States the small tracts adjacent to the 45th parallel of latitude in other states, we could not but express our regret to be thus, as it were, repelled. But regarding this, rather as the extreme limit of a claim, subject, notwithstanding the strong language of Lord Ashburton, to be restrained and limited, we deemed it proper, in our communication of the 6th instant, after declining to accede to the proposition, in conjunction with the commissioners of Massachusetts, to point out and offer a conventional line of boundary as therein specified.

In fixing on this line, we were mainly anxious to select such a one as should at once and preëminently give to Great Britain all that was necessary for her understood object, and to preserve to Maine the remainder of her territory. To accomplish this object, we departed from the river to secure the unobstructed use of the accustomed way from Quebec to Halifax. We are not aware that any objection has been made, from any quarter, to this line, as not giving up to Great Britain all that she needed, or could reasonably ask for the above purpose. And although Lord Ashburton did not deem it necessary to "examine the line (proposed) in its precise details," or to look at a map on which it could most readily be traced, and although he has seen fit to say that he was "quite at a loss to account for such a proposal," yet he has not intimated that the line suggested fails, in any respect, to meet the object we had in view, and which we frankly and readily avowed.

It is well known to you, sir, that we had determined upon no such inflexible adherence to that exact demarcation as would have prevented us from changing it, upon any reasonable evidence that it did not, in any respect, meet the requirements of the above stated proposition, in relation to a perfect line of communication. But, believing then, as we do now, that it did thus meet all these requirements; and although it was, as we felt bound to say, the general and confident expectation of the people of Maine, that any relinquishment on our part, of jurisdiction and territory would be, in part at least, compensated from that strip of contiguous territory on the west bank of the St. John; yet, when we were solemnly assured that no such cession could be made under his lordship's instructions, we forebore to press for this reasonable and just exchange, and contented ourselves with accepting the limited right of navigation of the river, as the only equivalent from Great Britain for the territory and jurisdiction we offered to surrender. And, as you remark, we offered not

merely a right of way on land for a similar easement on the water; but the entire and absolute title to the land, and jurisdiction of the large tract north and east of the line specified.

It cannot be denied, that it preserves to us a frontier in a forest almost impenetrable on the north, which would defend itself by its own natural character, and that, if any thing should be deducted from the agricultural value of that portion beyond the Madawaska settlements, on account of its ruggedness and its want of attraction to settlers, much may justly be added to its value as a boundary between the two nations.

The value of this tract to Great Britain, both in a civil and military point of view, cannot be overlooked. It gives her the much coveted route for the movement of troops in war, and her mails and passengers in peace, and is most particularly important in case of renewed outbreaks in her North American colonies. The assumption of jurisdiction in the Madawaska settlement, and the pertinacity with which it has been maintained, are practical evidence of the value attached to the tract by the Government of Her Britannic Majesty.

We have alluded to these views of the value and importance of the territory, not with any design of expressing our regret that we thus offered it, but to show that we are fully aware of all the views and circumstances affecting the question, and that we duly appreciate the far-seeing sagacity and prudence of those British statesmen who so early attempted to secure it as a cession, by negotiation, and the suggestion of equivalents.

The answer of Lord Ashburton to your note of the 8th instant contained a distinct rejection of our offer, with a substantial withdrawal of his claim to any territory south of the river St. John, but not modifying the claim for the relinquishment, on the part of Maine and the United States, of all north of that river. Our views in reference to many of the topics in his lordship's reply we have had the honor heretofore to communicate to you, in our note of the 16th inst.; and to that answer we would now refer, as forming an important part of this negotiation, and as containing our refusal indicated. We are now called upon to consider the final proposition made by or through the Government of the United States for our consideration and acceptance. The line indicated may be shortly defined as the line recommended by the King of the Netherlands, and an addition thereto of a strip of land, at the base of the highlands, running to the source of the southwest branch of the St. John. The examination and consideration of all other lines, which might better meet our views and objects, have been precluded by the declaration, and other plenary evidence we have, that the line specified in your communication is the most advantageous that can be offered to us; and that no one of less extent, or yielding in fact less to the other party, can be deemed admissible. We are, therefore, brought to the single and simple consideration of the question, whether we can, consistently with our views of our duty to the State we represent, accept the proposition submitted by you.

So far as any claim is interposed, based upon a supposed equity arising from the recommendation of the King of the Netherlands, we have only to refer to our former note for our views on that topic. We have now

only to add, that we came to this conference untrammelled and free, to see if, in a spirit of amity and equity, we could not find and agree upon some new line, which, while it yielded all that was needed by one party, might fairly be the motive and groundwork for equivalent territory or rights granted to the other; and that we cannot make any admission or consent to any proposition which would not revive, but put vitality and power into that which up to this time has never possessed either. We base our whole action on grounds entirely independent of the arbiter.

It may possibly be intimated in this connexion, as it has more than once been heretofore, that the commissioners of Maine and the people of that state, are disposed to regard the whole territory as clearly falling within their rightful limits, and are not willing to consider the question as one in doubt or dispute; and, therefore, one to be settled as if each party had nearly or quite equal claims. Certainly, sir, the people and government of Maine do not deny that the question has been drawn into dispute. They have had too many and too recent painful evidences of that fact, to allow such a doubt, however much at a loss they may be to perceive any just or tenable grounds on which the adversary claim is based. For years they have borne and foreborne, and struggled to maintain their right, in a peaceable and yet unflinching spirit, against what appeared to them injustice from abroad and neglect at home. But they have yet to learn that the mere fact that an adverse claim is made and persisted in, and maintained by ingenuity and ability for a series of years, increasing in extent and varying its grounds as years roll on, is to be regarded as a reason why courtesy should require, in opposition to the fact, a relinquishment of the confidence, or that a continued, adverse and resisted claim, may yet, by mere lapse of time and reiteration, ripen into a right.

But we desire it to be distinctly remembered, that in this attempt to negotiate for a conventional line, Maine has not insisted, or even requested, that any formal or virtual admission of her title to the whole territory should be a condition preliminary to a settlement. We hold, and we claim, the right to express, at all times, and in all suitable places, our opinion of the perfect right of Maine to the whole territory; but we have never assumed it, as a point of honor, that our adversary should acknowledge it. Indeed, we have endeavored to view the subject rather in reference to a settlement, on even hard terms for us, than to dwell on the strong aspect of the case, when we look at the naked question of our right and title under the treaty. It could hardly be expected, however, that we should silently, and thus virtually, acquiesce in any assumption that our claim was unsustained, and that "the treaty line was not executable." On this point we expressed ourselves fully in a former note.

In returning to the direct consideration of the last proposition, and the terms and conditions attending it, in justice to ourselves and our state, we feel bound to declare, and we confidently appeal to you, sir, in confirmation of the declaration, that this negotiation has been conducted, on our own part, with no mercenary views, and with no design to extort unreasonable equivalents or extravagant compensation. The State of Maine has always felt an insuperable repugnance to parting with any portion

even of her disputed territory, for mere pecuniary recompense from adverse claimants. She comes here for no mere bargain for the sale of acres, in the spirit or with the art of traffic. Her commissioners have been much less anxious to secure benefit and recompense, than to preserve the state from unnecessary curtailment and dismemberment. The proposition we made is evidence in point. We have heretofore expressed some opinions of the mutual character of the benefits to each party from the free navigation of the St. John. Without entering, however, upon the particular consideration of the terms and conditions, which we have thought it unnecessary to do, we distinctly state that our great repugnance to the line is based upon the extent of territory required to be yielded. We may, however, in passing, remark that all the pecuniary offers contained in your note, most liberally construed, would scarcely recompense and pay to Maine the amount of money and interest which she has actually expended in defending and protecting the territory from the wrongs arising and threatened by reason of its condition as disputed ground.

Considering then the proposition as involving the surrender of more territory than the avowed objects of England require, as removing our landmarks from the well known and well defined boundary of the treaty of 1783, on the crest of the highlands, besides insisting upon the line of the arbiter in its full extent, we feel bound to say, after the most careful and anxious consideration, that we cannot bring our minds to the conviction that the proposal is such as Maine had a right to expect.

But we are not unaware of the expectations which have been made and are still entertained of a favorable issue to this negotiation by the government and people of this country, and the great disappointment which would be felt and expressed at its failure. Nor are we unmindful of the future, warned as we have been by the past, that any attempts to determine the line by arbitration must be either fruitless or with a result more to be deplored.

We are now given to understand that the Executive of the United States, representing the sovereignty of the Union, assents to the proposal, and that this department of the government, at least, is anxious for its acceptance, as, in its view, most expedient for the general good.

The commissioners of Massachusetts have already given their assent on behalf of that commonwealth. Thus situated, the commissioners of Maine, invoking the spirit of attachment and patriotic devotion of their state to the Union, and being willing to yield to the deliberative convictions of her sister states as the path of duty, and to interpose no obstacles to an adjustment which the general judgment of the nation shall pronounce as honorable and expedient, even if that judgment shall lead to a surrender of a portion of the birthright of the people of their state, and prized by them because of their birthright, have determined to overcome their objections to the proposal, so far as to say, that if, upon mature consideration, the Senate of the United States shall advise and consent to the ratification of a treaty, corresponding in its terms with your proposal, and with the conditions in our memorandum accompanying this note, (marked A,) and identified by our signatures, they, by virtue of the power vested in them by the resolves by the Legislature of Maine, give

the assent of that state to such conventional line, with the terms, conditions, and equivalents herein mentioned.

We have the honor to be, sir, with high respect,

Your obedient servants,

EDWARD KAVANAGH,
EDWARD KENT,
JOHN OTIS,
WILLIAM P. PREBLE.

Hon. Daniel Webster, &c.

A. The commissioners of Maine request the following provisions, or the substance thereof, shall be incorporated into the proposed treaty, should one be agreed on :

1st. That the amount of "the disputed territory fund," (so called,) received by the authorities of New Brunswick, for timber cut on the disputed territory, shall be paid over to the United States, for the use of Maine and Massachusetts, in full, and a particular account rendered, or a gross sum, to be agreed upon by the commissioners of Maine and Massachusetts, shall be paid by Great Britain, as a settlement of that fund ; and all claims, bonds, and securities, taken for timber cut upon the territory, be transferred to the authorities of Maine and Massachusetts.

2d. That all grants of land within that portion of the disputed territory conceded to Great Britain, made by Maine and Massachusetts, or either of them, shall be confirmed, and all equitable possessory titles shall be quieted, to those who possess the claims ; and we assent to a reciprocal provision for the benefit of settlers falling within the limits of Maine. And we trust that the voluntary suggestion of the British minister, in regard to John Baker and any other, if there be any similarly situated, will be carried into effect, so as to secure their rights.

3d. That the right of free navigation of the St. John, as set forth in the proposition of Mr. Webster, on the part of the United States, shall extend to and include the products of the soil in the same manner as the products of the forest ; and that no toll, tax, or duty be levied upon timber coming from the territory of Maine.

EDWARD KAVANAGH,
EDWARD KENT,
JOHN OTIS,
WILLIAM P. PREBLE.

CASE OF THE CAROLINE.

Mr. Webster to Lord Ashburton.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, }
Washington, July 27, 1842. }

MY LORD : In relation to the case of the "Caroline," which we have heretofore made the subject of conference, I have thought it right to place in your hands an extract of a letter from this department to Mr.

Fox, of the 24th of April, 1841, and an extract from the message of the President of the U. States to Congress at the commencement of its present session. These papers you have, no doubt, already seen ; but they are, nevertheless, now communicated, as such communication is considered a ready mode of presenting the view which this Government entertains of the destruction of that vessel.

The act of which the Government of the United States complains, is not to be considered as justifiable or unjustifiable, as the question of the lawfulness or unlawfulness of the employment in which the "Caroline" was engaged, may be decided the one way or the other. That act was of itself a wrong, and an offence to the sovereignty and dignity of the United States, being a violation of their soil and territory ; a wrong for which, to this day, no atonement, or even apology, has been made by Her Majesty's Government. Your lordship cannot but be aware that self-respect, the consciousness of independence and national equality, and a sensitiveness to whatever may touch the honor of the country, — a sensitiveness which this Government will ever feel and ever cultivate, — makes this a matter of high importance, and I must be allowed to ask for it your lordship's grave consideration.

I have the honor to be, my Lord, your lordship's most obedient serv't
DANIEL WEBSTER.

Lord Ashburton, &c. &c.

[Here follows the letter of Mr. Webster to Mr. Fox, dated April 24, 1841, which has already appeared in this journal, [Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 202.]

Extract from the Message of the President to Congress at the Commencement of its present session.

I REGRET that it is not in my power to make known to you an equally satisfactory conclusion in the case of the "Caroline" steamer, with the circumstances connected with the destruction of which, in December, 1837, by an armed force fitted out in the province of Upper Canada, you are already made acquainted. No such atonement as was due for the public wrong done to the United States by this invasion of her territory, so wholly irreconcilable with her rights as an independent power, has yet been made. In the view taken by his government, the inquiry whether the vessel was in the employment of those who were prosecuting an unauthorized war against that province, or was engaged by the owner in the business of transporting passengers to and from Navy Island, in hopes of private gain, which was most probably the case, in no degree alters the real question at issue between the two governments. This government can never concede to any foreign government the power, except in a case of the most urgent and extreme necessity, of invading its territory, either to arrest the persons or destroy the property of those who may have violated the municipal laws of such foreign government, or have disregarded their obligations arising under the law of nations. The ter-

ritory of the United States must be regarded as sacredly secure against all such invasions, until they shall voluntarily acknowledge inability to acquit themselves of their duties to others; and, in announcing this sentiment, I do but affirm a principle which no nation on earth would be more ready to vindicate, at all hazards, than the people and government of Great Britain. If upon a full investigation of all the facts, it shall appear that the owner of the "Caroline" was governed by a hostile intent, or had made common cause with those who were in the occupancy of Navy Island, then so far as he is concerned, there can be no claim to indemnity for the destruction of his boat, which this government would feel itself bound to prosecute, since he would have acted not only in derogation of the rights of Great Britain, but in clear violation of the laws of the United States. But that is a question which, however settled, in no manner involves the higher consideration of the violation of territorial sovereignty and jurisdiction. To recognize it as an admissible practice, that each government, in its turn, upon sudden and unauthorized outbreak, which, on a frontier, the extent of which renders it impossible for either to have an efficient force on every mile of it, and which outbreak, therefore, neither may be able to suppress in a day, may take vengeance into its own hands, and without even a remonstrance, and in the absence of any pressing or overruling necessity, may invade the territory of the other, would inevitably lead to results equally to be deplored by both. When border collisions come to receive the sanction or to be made on the authority of either government, general war must be the inevitable result. While it is the ardent desire of the United States to cultivate the relations of peace with all nations, and to fulfil all the duties of good neighborhood, towards those who possess territories adjoining their own, that very desire would lead them to deny the right of any foreign power to invade their boundary with an armed force. The correspondence between the two governments on this subject will, at a future day of your session, be submitted to your consideration; and, in the mean time, I cannot but indulge the hope that the British government will see the propriety of renouncing as a rule of future action, the precedent which has been set in the affair at Schlosser.

Lord Ashburton to Mr. Webster.

WASHINGTON, July 28, 1842.

SIR: In the course of our conference on the several subjects of difference which it was the object of my mission to endeavor to settle, the unfortunate case of the Caroline, with its attendant consequences, could not escape our attention; for although it is not of a description to be susceptible of any settlement by a convention or treaty, yet, being connected with the highest considerations of national honor and dignity, it has given rise, at times, to deep excitements, so as more than once to endanger the maintenance of peace.

The note you did me the honor of addressing me the 27th instant, reminds me that however disposed your Government might be, to be satisfied with the explanations which it has been my duty to offer, the natural anxiety of the public mind requires that these explanations should be more durably recorded in our correspondence, and you send me a copy of your note to Mr. Fox, Her Britannic Majesty's minister here, and an extract from the speech of the President of the United States to Congress at the opening of the present session, as a ready mode of presenting the view entertained on this subject by the Government of the United States.

It is, so far, satisfactory to perceive that we are perfectly agreed as to the general principles of international law applicable to this unfortunate case. Respect for the inviolable character of the territory of independent nations, is the most essential foundation of civilization. It is useless to strengthen a principle so generally acknowledged by any appeal to authorities on international law, and you may be assured, sir, that Her Majesty's Government set the highest possible value on this principle, and are sensible of their duty to support it by their conduct and example, for the maintenance of peace and order in the world. If a sense of moral responsibility were not sufficient security for their observance of this duty towards all nations, it will be readily believed that the most common dictates of interest and policy would lead to it in the case of a long continuous boundary of some thousand miles, with a country of such great and growing power as the United States of America, inhabited by a kindred race, gifted with all its activity, and all its susceptibility on points of national honor.

Every consideration, therefore, leads us to set, as highly as your government can possibly do, this paramount obligation of reciprocal respect for the independent territory of each. But, however strong this duty may be, it is admitted by all writers, by all jurists, by the occasional practice of all nations, not excepting your own, that a strong overpowering necessity may arise, when this great principle may and must be suspended. It must be so for the shortest possible period, during the continuance of an admitted overruling necessity, and strictly confined within the narrowest limits imposed by that necessity. Self-defence is the first law of our nature; and it must be recognized by every code which professes to regulate the conditions and relations of man. Upon this modification, if I may so call it, of the great general principle, we seem also to be agreed; and on this part of the subject I have done little more than repeat the sentiments, though in less forcible language, admitted and maintained by you in the letter to which you refer me.

Agreeing, therefore, on the general principle, and on the possible exception to which it is liable, the only question between us is whether this occurrence came within the limits fairly to be assigned to such exception; whether, to use your words, there was "that necessity of self-defence, instant, overwhelming, leaving no choice of means," which preceded the destruction of the *Caroline*, while moored to the shore of the United States. Give me leave to say, sir, with all possible admiration of your very ingenious discussion of the general principles which are sup-

posed to govern the right and practice of interference by the people of one country in the wars and quarrels of others, that this part of your argument is little applicable to our immediate case. If Great Britain, America, or any other country suffer their people to fit out expeditions to take part in distant quarrels, such conduct may, according to the circumstances of each case, be justly matters of complaint; and perhaps these transactions have generally been in late times too much overlooked or connived at.

But the case we are considering is of a wholly different description, and may be best determined by answering the following questions: Supposing a man standing on ground where you have no legal right to follow him, has a weapon long enough to reach you, and is striking you down and endangering your life, how long are you bound to wait for the assistance of the authority having legal power to relieve you? Or, to bring the facts more immediately home to the case, if cannon are moving and setting up in a battery which can reach you, and are actually destroying life and property by their fire, if you have remonstrated for some time without effect, and see no prospect of relief, when begins your right to defend yourself, should you have no other means of doing so than by seizing your assailant on the verge of a neutral territory?

I am unwilling to recal to your recollection the particulars of this case, but I am obliged very shortly to do so, to show what was at the time the extent of the existing justification, for upon this entirely depends the question whether a gross insult has or has not been offered to the Government and people of the United States.

After some tumultuous proceedings in Upper Canada, which were of short duration, and were suppressed by the militia of the country, the persons criminally concerned in them took refuge in the neighboring State of New York, and with a very large addition to their numbers openly collected, invaded the Canadian territory, taking possession of Navy Island.

This invasion took place the 16th of December, 1837; a gradual accession of numbers and of military ammunition continued openly, and though under the sanction of no public authority, at least with no public hinderance, until the 29th of the same month, when several hundred men were collected, and twelve pieces of ordnance, which could only have been procured from some public store or arsenal, were actually mounted on Navy Island, and were used to fire within easy range upon the unoffending inhabitants of the opposite shore. Remonstrances, wholly ineffective, were made; so ineffectual, indeed, that a militia regiment stationed on the neighboring American island, looked on without any attempt at interference, while shots were fired from the American island itself. This important fact stands on the best American authority, being stated in a letter to Mr. Forsyth, of the 6th of February, 1838, of Mr. Benton, attorney of the United States, the gentleman sent by your government to inquire into the facts of the case, who adds, very properly, that he makes the statement "with deep regret and mortification."

This force, formed of all the reckless and mischievous people of the border, formidable from their numbers and from their armament, had in

their pay, and as part of their establishment, this steamboat *Caroline*, the important means and instrument by which numbers and arms were hourly increasing. I might safely put it to any candid man acquainted with the existing state of things, to say whether the military commander in Canada had the remotest reason, on the 29th of December, to expect to be relieved from this state of suffering by the protective intervention of any American authority. How long could a Government having the paramount duty of protecting its own people, be reasonably expected to wait for what they had then no reason to expect? What would have been the conduct of American officers? What has been their conduct under circumstances much less aggravated? I would appeal to you, sir, to say whether the facts which you say would alone justify this, act, namely, "a necessity of self-defence, instant, overwhelming, leaving no choice of means, and no moment for deliberation," were not applicable to this case in as high a degree as they ever were to any case of a similar description in the history of nations.

Nearly five years are now passed since this occurrence; there has been time for the public to deliberate upon it calmly, and I believe I may take it to be the opinion of candid and honorable men, that the British officers who executed this transaction, and their Government who approved it, intended no slight or disrespect to the sovereign authority of the United States. That they intended no such disrespect I can most solemnly affirm, and I trust it will be admitted that no inference to the contrary can fairly be drawn, even by the most susceptible on points of national honor.

Notwithstanding my wish that the explanation I had to make might not revive in any degree any feelings of irritation, I do not see how I could treat this subject without this short recital of facts, because the proof that no disrespect was intended, is mainly to be looked for in the extent of the justification.

There remains only a point or two which I should wish to notice, to remove in some degree the impression which your rather highly colored description of this transaction is calculated to make. The mode of telling a story often tends to distort facts, and in this case more than in any other, it is important to arrive at plain, unvarnished truth.

It appears from every account, that the expedition was sent to capture the *Caroline*, when she was expected to be found on the British ground of Navy Island, and that it was only owing to the orders of the rebel leader being disobeyed, that she was not so found. When the British officer came round the point of the island in the night, he first discovered that the boat was moored to the other shore. He was not by this deterred from making the capture, and his conduct was approved. But you will perceive that there was here, most decidedly, the case of justification mentioned in your note, that there should be "no moment left for deliberation." I mention this circumstance to show, also, that the expedition was not planned with a premeditated purpose of attacking the enemy within the jurisdiction of the United States, but that the necessity of so doing arose from altered circumstances at the moment of execution.

I have only further to notice the highly colored picture drawn in your

note, of the facts attending the execution of this service! Some importance is attached to the attack having been made in the night, and the vessel having been set on fire and floated down the falls of the river; and it is insinuated rather than asserted, that there was carelessness as to the lives of the persons on board. The account given by the distinguished officer who commanded the expedition distinctly refutes or satisfactorily explains these assertions. The time of night was purposely selected as most likely to insure the execution, with the least loss of life; and it is expressly stated that, the strength of the current not permitting the vessel to be carried off, and it being necessary to destroy her by fire, she was drawn into the stream for the express purpose of preventing injury to the persons or property of the inhabitants at Schlosser.

I would willingly have abstained from a return to the facts of this transaction, my duty being to offer those explanations and assurances which may lead to satisfy the public mind, and to the cessation of all angry feelings; but it appears to me that some explanation of the facts of the case, apparently misunderstood, might be of service for this purpose.

Although it is believed that a candid and impartial consideration of the whole history of this unfortunate event will lead to the conclusion, that there were grounds of justification as strong as ever were presented in such cases, and above all, that no slight of the authority of the United States was ever intended, yet, it must be admitted, that there was, in the hurried execution of this necessary service a violation of territory, and I am instructed to assure you that her Majesty's Government consider this as a most serious fact, and that far from thinking that an event of this kind should be lightly risked, they would unfeignedly deprecate its recurrence. Looking back to what passed at this distance of time, what is perhaps most to be regretted is, that some explanation and apology for this occurrence was not immediately made; this, with a frank explanation of the necessity of the case, might, and probably would, have prevented much of the exasperation, and of the subsequent complaints and recriminations to which it gave rise.

There are possible cases in the relations of nations as of individuals, where necessity, which controls all other laws, may be pleaded; but it is neither easy, nor safe, to attempt to define the rights or limits properly assignable to such a plea. This must always be a subject of much delicacy, and should be considered by friendly nations with great candor and forbearance. The intentions of the parties must mainly be looked to; and can it for a moment be supposed, that Great Britain would intentionally and wantonly provoke a great and powerful neighbor?

Her Majesty's Government earnestly desire, that a reciprocal respect for the independent jurisdiction and authority of neighboring states may be considered among the first duties of all governments; and I have to repeat the assurance of regret they feel, that the event of which I am treating should have disturbed the harmony they so anxiously wish to maintain with the American people and government.

Connected with these transactions, there have also been circumstances, of which I believe it is generally admitted that Great Britain has also had

just ground to complain. Individuals have been made personally liable for acts done under the avowed authority of their Government; and there are now many brave men exposed to personal consequences for no other cause than having served their country. That this is contrary to every principle of international law, it is useless for me to insist. Indeed, it has been admitted by every authority of your Government; but owing to a conflict of laws, difficulties have intervened much to the regret of those authorities, in giving practical effect to these principles; and for these difficulties some remedy has been by all desired. It is no business of mine to enter upon the consideration of them, nor have I sufficient information for the purpose; but I trust you will excuse my addressing to you the inquiry, whether the Government of the United States is now in the condition to secure, in effect and in practice, the principle which has never been denied in argument, that individuals, acting under legitimate authority, are not personally responsible for executing the orders of their Government? That the power, when it exists, will be used on every fit occasion, I am well assured; and I am bound to admit that, looking through the voluminous correspondence concerning these transactions, there appears no indisposition with any of the authorities of the Federal Government, under its several administrations, to do justice in this respect, in as far as their means and powers would allow.

I trust, sir, I may now be permitted to hope that all feelings of resentment and ill will, resulting from these truly unfortunate events, may be buried in oblivion, and that they may be succeeded by those of harmony and friendship, which is certainly the interest, and, I also believe, the inclination of all to promote.

I beg, sir, you will be assured of my high and unfeigned consideration.

ASHBURTON.

HON. DANIEL WEBSTER, &c. &c.

Mr. Webster to Lord Ashburton.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,)
Washington, August 6, 1842.)

YOUR Lordship's note of the 28th of July, in answer to mine of the 27th, respecting the case of the "Caroline," has been received and laid before the President.

The President sees with pleasure that your lordship fully admits those great principles of public law applicable to cases of this kind, which this government has expressed; and that on your part, as on ours, respect for the inviolable character of the territory of independent states, is the most essential foundation of civilization. And while it is admitted, on both sides, that there are exceptions to this rule, he is gratified to find that your lordship admits that such exceptions must come within the limitations stated and the terms used in a former communication from this department to the British plenipotentiary here. Undoubtedly it is just,

that while it is also admitted that exceptions growing out of the great law of self-defence do exist, those exceptions should be confined to cases in which the "necessity of that self defence is instant, overwhelming, that leave no choice of means, and no moment for deliberation."

Understanding these principles alike, the difference between the two governments is only whether the facts in the case of the "Caroline" make out a case of such necessity for the purpose of self defence. Seeing that the transaction is not recent, having happened in the time of one of his predecessors; seeing that your lordship, in the name of your government, solemnly declares that no slight or disrespect was intended to the sovereign authority of the United States; seeing that it is acknowledged that whether justifiable or not, there was yet a violation of the territory of the United States, and that you are instructed to say that your government considers that as a most serious occurrence; seeing, finally, that it is now admitted that an explanation and apology for this violation was due at the time, the President is content to receive these acknowledgments and assurances in the conciliatory spirit which marks your lordship's letter, and will make this subject, as a complaint of violation of territory, the topic of no further discussion between the two governments.

As to that part of your lordship's note which relates to other occurrences springing out of the case of the "Caroline," with which occurrences the name of Alexander McLeod has become connected, I have to say that the government of the United States entirely adheres to the sentiments and opinions expressed in the communications from this department to Mr. Fox. This government has admitted, that for an act, committed by the command of his sovereign, *jure belli*, an individual cannot be responsible, in the ordinary courts of another state. It would regard it as a high indignity if a citizen of its own, acting under its authority, and by its special command, in such cases, were held to answer in a municipal tribunal, and to undergo punishment, as if the behest of his government were no defence or protection to him.

But your lordship is aware that in regular constitutional governments, persons arrested on charges of high crimes can only be discharged by some judicial proceeding. It is so in England, it is so in the colonies and provinces of England. The forms of judicial proceedings differ in different countries, being more rapid in some and more dilatory in others; and it may be added, generally, more dilatory, or at least more cautious, in cases affecting life, in governments of a strictly limited, than in those of a more unlimited character. It was a subject of regret that the release of McLeod was so long delayed. A state court, and that not of the highest jurisdiction, decided that, on summary application, embarrassed, as it would appear, by technical difficulties, he could not be released by that court. His discharge, shortly afterward, by a jury, to whom he preferred to submit his case, rendered unnecessary the further prosecution of the legal question.

It is for the Congress of the United States, whose attention has been called to the subject, to say what further provisions ought to be made to expedite proceedings in such cases; and, in answer to your lordship's

question toward the close of your note, I have to say that the government of the United States holds itself, not only fully disposed, but fully competent to carry into practice every principle which it avows or acknowledges, and to fulfil every duty and obligation which it owes to foreign governments, their citizens or subjects.

I have the honor to be, my lord, with great consideration,

Your obedient servant,

DANIEL WEBSTER.

LORD ASHBURTON, &c. &c.

IMPRESSMENT.

Mr. Webster to Lord Ashburton.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, }
Washington, August 8, 1842. }

MY LORD : We have had several conversations on the subject of impressment ; but I do not understand that your Lordship has instructions from your government to negotiate upon it, nor does the government of the United States see any utility in opening such negotiations, unless the British government is prepared to forego the practice in all future war. No cause has produced, to so great an extent, and for so long a period, disturbing and irritating influences on the political relations of the United States and England, as the impressment of seamen by British cruisers from American merchant vessels.

From the commencement of the French revolution to the breaking out of the war between the two countries in 1812, hardly a year elapsed without loud complaint and earnest remonstrance ; a deep feeling of opposition to the right claimed, and to the practice exercised under it, and not unfrequently exercised without the least regard to what justice and humanity would have dictated, even if the right itself had been admitted, took possession of the public mind of America, and this feeling, it is well known, coöperated most powerfully with other causes to produce the state of hostilities which ensued.

At different periods, both before and since the war, negotiations have taken place between the two governments, with the hope of finding some means of quieting these complaints. At some times the effectual abolition of the practice has been requested and treated of ; at other times, its temporary suspension ; and at other times again, the limitation of its exercise, and some security against its enormous abuses.

A common destiny has attended these efforts ; they have all failed. The question stands at this moment where it stood fifty years ago. The nearest approach to a settlement was a convention proposed in 1803, and which had come to the point of signature, when it was broken off in consequence of the British government insisting that the *narrow seas* should be expressly excepted, out of the sphere over which the contemplated stipulations against impressment should extend. The American minister, Mr. King, regarded this exception as quite inadmissible, and

rather chose to abandon the negotiation than acquiesce in the doctrine which it proposed to establish.

England asserts the right of impressing British subjects, in time of war, out of neutral merchant vessels, and of deciding by her visiting officers, who, among the crews of such merchant vessels, are British subjects. She asserts this as a legal exercise of the prerogative of the crown; which prerogative is alleged to be founded on the English law of the perpetual and indissoluble allegiance of the subject, and his obligation, under all circumstances, and for his whole life, to render military services to the crown whenever required.

This statement, made in the words of eminent British jurists, shows at once that the English claim is far broader than the basis or platform on which it is raised. The law relied on is English law; the obligations insisted on are obligations existing between the crown of England and its subjects. This law, and these obligations, it is admitted, may be such as England may choose they shall be; but then they must be confined to the parties. Impressment of seamen, out of and beyond English territory, and from on board the ships of other nations, is an interference with the rights of other nations; is further, therefore, than English prerogative can legally extend; and is nothing but an attempt to enforce the peculiar law of England beyond the dominions and jurisdiction of the crown. The claim asserts an extra-territorial authority for the law of British prerogative, and assumes to exercise this extra-territorial authority to the manifest injury and annoyance of the citizens and subjects of other States, on board their own vessels on the high seas.

Every merchant vessel on the seas is rightfully considered as part of the territory of the country to which it belongs. The entry, therefore, into such vessel, being neutral, by a belligerent, is an act of force, and is *prima facie*, a wrong, a trespass, which can be justified only when done for some purpose, allowed to form a sufficient justification by the law of nations. But a British cruiser enters an American merchant vessel in order to take therefrom supposed British subjects; offering no justification therefor, under the law of nations, but claiming the right under the law of England respecting the king's prerogative. This cannot be defended. English soil, English territory, English jurisdiction, is the appropriate sphere for the operation of English law. The ocean is the sphere of the law of nations; and any merchant vessel on the seas is, by that law, under the protection of the laws of her own nation, and may claim immunity, unless in cases in which that law allows her to be entered or visited.

If this notion of perpetual allegiance, and the consequent power of the prerogative, was the law of the world; if it formed part of the conventional code of nations, and was usually practiced like the right of visiting neutral ships, for the purpose of discovering and seizing enemy's property, then impressment might be defended as a common right, and there would be no remedy for the evil till the national code should be altered. But this is by no means the case. There is no such principle incorporated into the code of nations. The doctrine stands only as English law — not as national law; and English law cannot be in force beyond Eng-

lish dominion. Whatever duties or relations that law creates between the sovereign and his subjects, can be enforced and maintained only within the realm, or proper possessions or territory of the sovereign. There may be quite as just a prerogative right to the property of the subjects as to their personal services, in an exigency of the State; but no government thinks of controlling by its own laws property of its subjects situated abroad; much less does any government think of entering the territory of another power for the purpose of seizing such property and applying it to their own uses. As laws, the prerogatives of the crown of England have no obligation on persons or property domiciled or situated abroad.

"When, therefore," says an authority not unknown or unregarded on either side of the Atlantic, "we speak of the rights of a state to bind its own native subjects every where, we speak only of its own claim and exercise of sovereignty over them when they return within its own territorial jurisdiction, and not of its right to compel or require obedience to such laws, on the part of other nations, within their own territorial sovereignty. On the contrary, every nation has an exclusive right to regulate persons and things within its own territory, according to its sovereign will and public polity."

The good sense of these principles, their remarkable pertinency to the subject now under consideration, and the extraordinary consequences resulting from the British doctrine, are signally manifested by that which we see taking place every day. England acknowledges herself overburdened with population of the poorer classes. Every instance of the emigration of persons of those classes is regarded by her as a benefit. England, therefore, encourages emigration; means are notoriously supplied to emigrants to assist their conveyance, from public funds; and the new world, and more especially these United States, receive the many thousands of her subjects thus ejected from the bosom of their native land by the necessities of their condition. They come away from poverty and distress, in over-crowded cities, to seek employment, comfort, and new homes, in a country of free institutions possessed by a kindred race, speaking their own language, and having laws and usages in many respects like those to which they have been accustomed, and a country which, upon the whole, is found to possess more attractions for persons of their character and condition, than any other on the face of the globe.

It is stated that in the quarter of the year ending with June last, more than twenty-six thousand emigrants left the single port of Liverpool for the United States, being four or five times as many as left the same port within the same period for the British colonies, and all other parts of the world. Of these crowds of emigrants, many arrive in our cities in circumstances of great destitution, and the charities of the country, both public and private, are severely taxed to relieve their immediate wants. In time they mingle with the new community in which they find themselves, and seek means of living; some find employment in the cities, others go to the frontiers, to cultivate lands reclaimed from the forest; and a greater or less number of the residue, becoming in time naturalized citizens, enter into the merchant service, under the flag of their adopted country.

Now, my lord, if war should break out between England and a European power, can any thing be more unjust, any thing more irreconcilable to the general sentiment of mankind, than that England should seek out these persons, thus encouraged by her, and compelled by their own condition, to leave their native homes, tear them away from their new employments, their new political relations, and their domestic connexions, and force them to undergo the danger and hardships of military service, for a country which has thus ceased to be their own country? Certainly, certainly, my lord, there can be but one answer to this question. Is it not far more reasonable that England should either prevent such emigration of her subjects, or, that, if she encourage and promote it, she should leave them not to the embroilment of a double and a contradictory allegiance, but to their own voluntary choice, to form such relations, political or social, as they see fit, in the country where they are to find their bread, and to the laws and institutions of which they are to look for defence and protection?

A question of such serious importance ought to be put at rest. If the U. States give shelter and protection to those whom the policy of England annually casts upon their shores; if, by the benign influences of their government and institutions, and by the happy condition of the country, those emigrants become raised from poverty to comfort, finding it easy even to become landholders, and being allowed to partake of the enjoyment of all civil rights; if all this may be done, (and all this is done, under the countenance and encouragement of England herself,) is it not high time that, yielding that which had its origin in feudal ideas as inconsistent with the present state of society, and especially with the intercourse and relations subsisting between the old world and the new, England should, at length, formally disclaim all right to the services of such persons, and renounce all control over their conduct?

But impressment is subject to objections of a much wider range. If it could be justified in its application to those who are declared to be its only objects, it still remains true, that, in its exercise, it touches the political rights of other governments, and endangers the security of their own native subjects and citizens. The sovereignty of the state is concerned in maintaining its exclusive jurisdiction and possession over its merchant ships on the seas, except so far as the law of nations justifies intrusion upon that possession for special purposes; and all experience has shown, that no member of a crew, wherever born, is safe against impressment when a ship is visited.

The evils and injuries resulting from the actual practice can hardly be overstated, and have ever proved themselves to be such as should lead to its relinquishment, even if it were founded in any defensible principle. The difficulty of discriminating between English and American citizens has always been found to be great, even when an honest purpose of discrimination has existed. But the lieutenant of a man-of-war, having necessity for men, is apt to be a summary judge, and his decisions will be quite as significant of his own wants and his own power, as of the truth and justice of the case. An extract from a letter of Mr. King, of the 13th of April, 1797, to the American Secretary of State, shows something of the enormous extent of these wrongful seizures:

"Instead of a few, and these in many instances equivocal cases, I have," says he, "since the month of July past, made application for the discharge, from British men-of-war, of two hundred and seventy-one seamen, who, stating themselves to be Americans, have claimed my interference. Of this number eighty-six have been ordered by the Admiralty to be discharged, thirty-seven more have been detained as British subjects or as American volunteers, or for want of proof that they are Americans, and to my applications for the discharge of the remaining one hundred and forty-eight, I have received no answer, the ships on board of which these seamen were detained having in many instances sailed before an examination was made in consequence of my application.

"It is certain that some of those who have applied to me are not American citizens, but the exceptions are, in my opinion, few, and the evidence, exclusive of certificates, has been such as, in most cases, to satisfy me that the applicants were real Americans, who have been forced into the British service, and who, with singular constancy generally persevered in refusing pay or bounty, though in some instances they have been in service more than two years."

But the injuries of impressment are by no means confined to its immediate subjects, or the individuals on whom it is practiced. Vessels suffer from the weakening of the crews, and voyages are often delayed, and not unfrequently broken up, by subtraction from the number of regular hands by impressment. And what is of still greater and more general moment, the fear of impressment has been found to create great difficulty in obtaining sailors for the American merchant service in times of European war. Seafaring men, otherwise inclined to enter that service, are, as experience has shown, deterred by the fear of finding themselves ere long in compulsory military service in British ships of war. Many instances have occurred, fully established in proof, in which ~~raw~~ seamen, natives of the United States, fresh from the fields of agriculture, entering for the first time on ship-board, have been impressed before they made the land, placed on the decks of British men-of-war, and compelled to serve for years before they could obtain their release, or visit their native country, and their homes. Such instances become known, and their effect in discouraging young men from engaging in the merchant service of their country can neither be doubted nor wondered at. More than all, my lord, the practice of impressment, whenever it has existed, has produced not conciliation or good feeling, but resentment, exasperation, and animosity between the two great commercial countries of the world.

In the calm and quiet which have succeeded the late war, — a condition so favorable for dispassionate consideration, — England herself has evidently seen the harshness of impressment, even exercised on seamen in her own merchant service, and she has adopted measures calculated if not to renounce the power or to abolish the practice, yet, at least, to supersede its necessity by other means of manning the royal navy more compatible with justice and the rights of individuals, and far more conformable to the spirit and sentiments of the age.

Under these circumstances, the Government of the United States has used the occasion of your lordship's pacific mission to renew this whole

subject, and to bring it to your notice and that of your government. It has reflected on the past, pondered on the condition of the present, and endeavored to anticipate, as far as might be in its power, the probable future, and I am now to communicate to your lordship the result of these deliberations.

The American Government, then, is prepared to say, that the practice of impressing seamen from American vessels cannot be hereafter allowed to take place. That practice is founded on principles which it does not recognize, and is invariably attended by consequences so unjust, so injurious, and of such formidable magnitude, as cannot be submitted to.

In the early disputes between the two governments on this so long contested topic, the distinguished person to whose hands were first intrusted the seals of this department declared, that "the simplest rule will be, that the vessel being American shall be evidence that the seamen on board are such."

Fifty years' experience, the utter failure of many negotiations, and a careful consideration now had of the whole subject at a moment when the passions are laid, and no present instance or emergency exists to bias the judgment, have fully convinced this Government that this is not only the simplest and best, but the only rule, which can be adopted and observed, consistently with the rights and honor of the United States, and the security of their citizens. That rule announces, therefore, what will hereafter be the principle maintained by this Government. In every regularly documented American merchant vessel the crew who navigate it will find their protection in the flag which is over them.

The announcement is not made, my lord, to revive useless recollections of the past, nor to stir embers from fires which have been in a great degree smothered by many years of peace. Far otherwise. Its purpose is to extinguish those fires effectually, before new incidents arise to fan them into flame. The communication is in the spirit of peace, and for the sake of peace, and springs from a deep and conscientious conviction that the high interests of both nations require that this so long contested and controverted subject should now be finally put to rest. I persuade myself, my lord, that you will do justice to this frank and sincere avowal of motives, and that you will communicate your sentiments in this respect, to your government.

This letter closes, my lord, on my part, our official correspondence; and I gladly use the occasion to offer you the assurances of my high and sincere regard.

DANIEL WEBSTER.

Lord Ashburton to Mr. Webster.

WASHINGTON, August 9, 1842.

SIR: The note you did me the honor of addressing me the 8th instant, on the subject of impressment, shall be transmitted without delay to my Government, and will, you may be assured, receive from them the deliberate attention which its importance deserves.

The object of my mission was mainly the settlement of existing subjects of difference, and no differences have or could have arisen of late years with respect to impressment, because the practice has since the peace wholly ceased, and cannot, consistently with existing laws and regulations for manning her Majesty's navy, be, under present circumstances, renewed.

Desirous, however, of looking far forward into futurity to anticipate every possible cause of disagreement, and sensible of the anxiety of the American people on this grave subject of past irritation, I should be sorry in any way to discourage the attempt at some settlement of it; and, although without authority to enter upon it here during the limited continuance of my mission, I entertain a confident hope that this task may be accomplished, when undertaken, with the spirit of candor and conciliation which has marked all our late negotiation.

It not being our intention to endeavor now to come to any agreement on this subject, I may be permitted to abstain from noticing, at any length, your very ingenious arguments relating to it, and from discussing the graver matters of constitutional and international law growing out of them. These sufficiently show that the question is one requiring calm consideration; though I must, at the same time, admit that they prove a strong necessity of some settlement for the preservation of that good understanding which, I trust, we may flatter ourselves that our joint labors have now succeeded in establishing.

I am well aware that the laws of our two countries maintain opposite principles respecting allegiance to sovereignty. America, receiving every year, by thousands, the emigrants of Europe, maintains the doctrine suitable to her condition of the right of transferring allegiance at will. The laws of Great Britain have maintained, from all time, the opposite doctrine. The duties of allegiance are held to be indispensable, and it is believed that this doctrine, under various modifications, prevails in most, if not in all, the civilized states of Europe.

Emigration, the modern mode by which the population of the world peaceably finds its level, is for the benefit of all, and eminently for the benefit of humanity. The fertile deserts of America are gradually advancing to the highest state of cultivation and production, while the emigrant acquires comfort which his own confined home could not afford him.

If there were any thing in our laws, or our practice, on either side, tending to impede this march of providential humanity, we could not be too eager to provide the remedy; but as this does not appear to be the case, we may safely leave this part of the subject without indulging in abstract speculations, having no material practical application to matters in discussion between us.

But it must be admitted that a serious practical question does arise, or rather has existed, from practices formerly attending the mode of manning the British navy in times of war. The principle is, that all subjects of the crown are in case of necessity bound to serve their country, and the sea-faring man is naturally taken for the naval service. This is not, as is sometimes supposed, any arbitrary principle of monarchical govern-

ment, but one founded on the natural duty of every man to defend the life of his country ; and all the analogy of your laws would lead to the conclusion that the same principle would hold good in the United States, if their geographical position did not make its application unnecessary.

The very anomalous condition of the two countries, with relation to each other, here creates a serious difficulty. Our people are not distinguishable ; and owing to the peculiar habits of sailors, our vessels are very generally manned from a common stock. It is difficult, under these circumstances, to execute laws which at times have been thought to be essential for the existence of the country, without risk of injury to others. The extent and importance of those injuries, however, are so formidable, that it is admitted that some remedy should, if possible, be applied ; at all events, it must be fairly and honestly attempted.

It is true that during the continuance of peace no practical grievance can arise ; but it is also true that it is for that reason the proper season for the calm and deliberate consideration of an important subject. I have much reason to hope that a satisfactory arrangement respecting it may be made, so as to set at rest all apprehension and anxiety ; and I will only further repeat the assurance of the sincere disposition of my government favorably to consider all matters having for their object the promoting and maintaining undisturbed kind and friendly feeling with the United States.

I beg sir, on this occasion of closing the correspondence with you connected with my mission, to express the satisfaction I feel at its successful termination, and to assure you of my high consideration and personal esteem and regard.

ASHBURTON.

HON. DANIEL WEBSTER, &C. &C.

CASE OF THE "CREOLE."

Mr. Webster to Lord Ashburton.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, }
Washington, August 1, 1841. }

MY LORD : The President has learned with much regret that you are not empowered by your Government to enter into a formal stipulation for the better security of vessels of the United States, when meeting with disasters in passing between the United States and the Bahama Islands, and driven, by such disasters, into British ports. This is a subject which is deemed to be of great importance, and which cannot, on the present occasion, be overlooked.

Your lordship is aware that several cases have occurred within the last few years, which have caused much complaint. In some of these cases compensation has been made by the English Government for the interference of the local authorities with American vessels having slaves on board, by which interference these slaves were set free. In other cases, such

compensation has been refused. It appears to the President to be for the interest of both countries, that the recurrence of similar cases in future should be prevented as far as possible.

Your lordship has been acquainted with the case of the "Creole," a vessel carried into the port of Nassau last winter by persons who had risen upon the lawful authority of the vessel, and, in the accomplishment of their purpose, had committed murder on a person on board.

The opinions which that occurrence gave occasion for this Government to express in regard to the rights and duties of friendly and civilized maritime States, placed by Providence near to each other, were well considered, and are entertained with entire confidence. The facts in the particular case of the "Creole" are controverted; positive and officious interference by the colonial authorities to set the slaves free being alleged on one side, and denied on the other.

It is not my purpose to discuss the difference of opinion as to the evidence in this case, as it at present exists, because the rights of individuals having rendered necessary a more thorough and a judicial investigation of facts and circumstances attending the transaction, such investigation is understood to be now in progress, and its result, when known, will render me more able than at this moment to present to the British Government a full and accurate view of the whole case. But it is my purpose, and my duty, to invite your lordship's attention to the general subject, and your serious consideration of some practical means of giving security to the coasting trade of the United States against unlawful annoyance and interruption along this point of their shore. The Bahama islands approach the coast of Florida within a few leagues, and, with the coast, form a long and narrow channel, filled with innumerable small islands and banks of sand, and the navigation is difficult and dangerous, not only on these accounts, but from the violence of the winds and the variable nature of the currents. Accidents are of course frequent, and necessity compels vessels of the United States in attempting to double Cape Florida, to seek shelter in the ports of these islands. Along this passage the Atlantic States hold intercourse with the States on the Gulf and the Mississippi, and through it the products of the valley of that river, (a region of vast extent and boundless fertility,) find a main outlet to the sea, in their destination to the markets of the world.

No particular ground of complaint exists as to the treatment which American vessels usually receive in these ports, unless they happen to have slaves on board; but in cases of that kind, complaints have been made, as already stated, of officious interference of the colonial authorities with the vessel, for the purpose of changing the condition in which these persons are, by the laws of their own country, and of setting them free.

In the Southern States of this Union slavery exists by the laws of the States and under the guarantee of the Constitution of the United States; and it has existed in them from a period long antecedent to the time when they ceased to be British colonies. In this state of things, it will happen that slaves will be often on board coasting vessels as hands, as servants attending the families of their owners, or for the purpose of being carried

from port to port. For the security of the rights of their citizens, when vessels, having persons of this description on board, are driven by stress of weather, or carried by unlawful force, into British ports, the United States propose the introduction of no new principle into the law of nations. They require only a faithful and exact observance of the injunctions of that code as understood and practiced in modern times.

Your lordship observes that I have spoken only of American vessels driven into British ports by the disasters of the seas, or carried in by unlawful force. I confine my remarks to these cases, because they are the common cases, and because they are the cases which the law of nations most emphatically exempts from interference. The maritime law is full of instances of the application of that great and practical rule, which declares, that that which is the clear result of necessity ought to draw after it no penalty and no hazard. If a ship be driven by stress of weather into a prohibited port, or into an open port, with prohibited articles on board, in neither case is any forfeiture incurred. And what may be considered a still stronger case, it has been decided by eminent English authority, and that decision has received general approbation, that if a vessel be driven, by necessity, into a port strictly blockaded, this necessity is good defence, and exempts her from penalty.

A vessel on the high seas, beyond the distance of a marine league from the shore, is regarded as part of the territory of the nation to which she belongs, and subjected exclusively to the jurisdiction of that nation. If, against the will of her master, or owner, she be driven or carried nearer to the land, or even into port, those who have, or ought to have, control over her struggling all the while to keep her on the high seas, and so within the exclusive jurisdiction of her own Government, what reason or justice is there in creating a distinction between her rights and immunities, in a position thus the result of absolute necessity, and the same rights and immunities before superior power had forced her out of her voluntary course?

But, my lord, the rule of law, and the comity and practice of nations, go much further than these cases of necessity, and allow even to a merchant vessel coming into any open port of another country voluntarily, for the purposes of lawful trade, to bring with her, and keep over her, to a very considerable extent, the jurisdiction and authority of the laws of her own country.

A ship, say the publicists, though at anchor in a foreign harbor, reserves its jurisdiction and its laws. It is natural to consider the vessels of a nation as parts of its territory, though at sea, as the state retains its jurisdiction over them; and, according to the commonly received custom, this jurisdiction is preserved over the vessels, even in parts of the sea subject to a foreign dominion.

This is the doctrine of the law of nations, clearly laid down by writers of received authority, and entirely conformable, as it is supposed, with the practices of modern nations.

If a murder be committed on board of an American vessel, by one of the crew upon another, or upon a passenger, or by a passenger on one of the crew or another passenger, while such vessel is lying in a port within

the jurisdiction of a foreign state or sovereignty, the offence is cognizable and punishable by the proper court of the United States, in the same manner as if such offence had been committed on board the vessel on the high seas. The law of England is supposed to be the same.

It is true that the jurisdiction of a nation over a vessel belonging to it, while lying in the port of another, is not necessarily wholly exclusive. We do not so consider or so assert it. For any unlawful acts done by her while thus lying in port, and for all contracts entered into while there, by her master or owners, she and they must doubtless be answerable to the laws of the place. Nor, if her master and crew, while on board in such port, break the peace of the community by the commission of crimes, can exemption be claimed for them. But nevertheless, the law of nations, as I have stated it, and the statutes of Governments founded on that law, as I have referred to them, show that enlightened nations, in modern times, do clearly hold that the jurisdiction and laws of a nation accompany her ships not only over the high seas, but into ports and harbors, or wheresoever else they may be water-borne, for the general purpose of governing and regulating the rights, duties, and obligations of those on board thereof, and that, to the extent of the exercise of this jurisdiction, they are considered as parts of the territory of the nation herself.

If a vessel be driven by weather into the ports of another nation, it would hardly be alleged by any one, that, by the mere force of such arrival within the waters of the State, the law of that State would so attach to the vessel as to affect existing rights of property between persons on board, whether arising from contract or otherwise. The local law would not operate to make the goods of one man to become the goods of another man. Nor ought it to affect their personal obligations, or existing relations between themselves; nor was it ever supposed to have such effect, until the delicate and exciting question which has caused these interferences in the British islands arose. The local law in these cases dissolves no obligations or relations lawfully entered into or lawfully existing, according to the laws of the ship's country. If it did, intercourse of civilized men between nation and nation must cease. Marriages are frequently celebrated in one country in a manner not lawful or valid in another; but did any body ever doubt that marriages are valid all over the civilized world, if valid in the country in which they took place? Did any one ever imagine that local law acted upon such marriages to annihilate their obligation, if the parties should visit a country in which marriages must be celebrated in another form?

It may be said that, in such instances, personal relations are founded in contract, and therefore to be respected; but that the relation of master and slave is not founded in contract, and therefore is to be respected only by the law of the place which recognizes it. Whoever so reasons, encounters the authority of the whole body of public law, from Grotius down; because there are numerous instances in which the law itself presumes or implies contracts; and prominent among these instances is the very relation which we are now considering, and which relation is held by law to draw after it mutuality of obligation.

Is not the relation between a father and his minor children acknowledged, when they go abroad? And on what contract is this founded, but a contract raised by general principles of law, from the relation of the parties?

Your Lordship will please bear in mind, that the proposition which I am endeavoring to support is, that by the comity of the law of nations, and the practice of modern times, merchant vessels, entering open ports of other nations, for the purpose of trade, are presumed to be allowed to bring with them, and to retain, for their protection and government, the jurisdiction and laws of their own country. All this, I repeat, is presumed to be allowed; because the ports are open, because trade is invited, and because, under these circumstances, such permission or allowance is according to general usage. It is not denied that all this may be refused; and this suggests a distinction, the disregard of which may perhaps account for most of the difficulties arising in cases of this sort; that is to say, the distinction, between what a state may do if it pleases, and what it is presumed to do, or not to do, in the absence of any positive declaration of its will. A state might declare that all foreign marriages should be regarded as null and void, within its territory; that a foreign father, arriving with an infant son, should no longer have authority or control over him; that, on the arrival of a foreign vessel in its ports, all shipping articles and all indentures of apprenticeship between her crew and her owners or masters, should cease to be binding. These, and many other things equally irrational and absurd, a sovereign state has doubtless the power to do. But they are not to be presumed. It is not to be taken for granted, that it is the will of the sovereign state thus to withdraw itself from the circle of civilized nations. It will be time enough to believe this to be its intention, when it formally announces that intention by appropriate enactments, edicts, or other declarations. In regard to slavery within the British territories, there is a well known and clear promulgation of the will of the sovereign authority; that is to say, there is a well known rule of her law. As to England herself, that law has long existed; and recent acts of Parliament established the same law for the colonies. The usual mode of stating the rule of English law is, that no sooner does a slave reach the shore of England, than he is free. This is true; but it means no more than that, when a slave comes within the exclusive jurisdiction of England, he ceases to be a slave, because the law of England positively and notoriously prohibits and forbids the existence of such a relation between man and man. But it does not mean that English authorities, with this rule of English law in their hands, may enter where the jurisdiction of another nation is acknowledged to exist, and there destroy rights, obligations, and interests, lawfully existing under the authority of such other nation. No such construction, and no such effect, can be rightfully given to the British law. It is true, that it is competent for the British Parliament, by express statute provision, to declare that no foreign jurisdiction of any kind should exist, in or over a vessel, after its arrival voluntarily in her ports. And so she might close all her ports to the ships of all nations. A state may also declare, in the absence of treaty stipulations, that foreigners shall not sue in her courts, nor

travel in her territories, nor carry away funds or goods received for debts. We need not inquire what would be the condition of a country that should establish such laws, nor in what relation they would leave her towards the states of the civilized world. Her power to make such laws is unquestionable; but, in the absence of direct and positive enactments to that effect, the presumption is that the opposites of these things exist. While her ports are open to foreign trade, it is to be presumed that she expects foreign ships to enter them, bringing with them the jurisdiction of their own government, and the protection of its laws, to the same extent that her ships, and the ships of other commercial states, carry with them the jurisdiction of their respective governments into the open ports of the world; just as it is presumed, while the contrary is not avowed, that strangers may travel in a civilized country in a time of peace, sue in its courts, and bring away their property.

A merchant vessel enters the port of a friendly state, and enjoys while there the protection of her own laws, and is under the jurisdiction of her own government, not in derogation of the sovereignty of the place, but by the presumed allowance or permission of that sovereignty. This permission or allowance is founded on the comity of nations, like the other cases which have been mentioned; and this comity is part, and a most important and valuable part, of the law of nations, to which all nations are presumed to assent, until they make their dissent known. In the silence of any positive rule, affirming or denying or restraining the operations of foreign laws, their tacit adoption is presumed, to the usual extent. It is upon this ground that courts of law expound contracts according to the law of the place in which they are made; and instances almost innumerable exist, in which, by the general practice of civilized countries, the laws of one will be recognized and often executed by another. This is the comity of nations; and it is upon this, as its solid basis, that the intercourse of civilized states is maintained.

But while that which has now been said is understood to be the voluntary and adopted law of nations, in cases of the voluntary entry of merchant vessels into the ports of other countries, it is nevertheless true, that vessels in such ports, only through an overruling necessity, may place their claim for exemption from interference on still higher principles; that is to say, principles held in more sacred regard by the comity, the courtesy, and indeed the common sense of justice of all civilized states.

Even in regard to cases of necessity, however, there are things of an unfriendly and offensive character, which yet it may not be easy to say that a nation might not do. For example, a nation might declare her will to be, and make it the law of her dominions, that foreign vessels cast away on her shores, should be lost to her owners, and subject to the ancient law of wreck. Or a neutral state, while shutting her ports to the armed vessels of belligerents, as she has a right to do, might resolve on seizing and confiscating vessels of that description, which should be driven to take shelter in her harbors by the violence of the storms of the ocean. But laws of this character, within the absolute competence of government, could only be passed, if passed at all, under willingness to meet the last responsibility to which nations are subject.

The presumption is stronger, therefore, in regard to vessels driven into foreign ports by necessity, and seeking only temporary refuge, than in regard to those which enter them voluntarily, and for purposes of trade, that they will not be interfered with; and that, unless they commit, while in port, some act against the laws of the place, they will be permitted to receive supplies, to repair damages, and to depart unmolested.

If, therefore, vessels of the United States, pursuing lawful voyages, from port to port, along their own shore, are driven by stress of weather, or carried by unlawful force, into English ports, the Government of the United States cannot consent that the local authorities in those parts shall take advantage of such misfortunes, and enter them, for the purpose of interfering with the condition of persons or things on board, as established by their own laws. If slaves, the property of citizens of the United States, escape into the British territories, it is not expected that they will be restored. In that case, the territorial jurisdiction of England will have become exclusive over them, and must decide their condition. But slaves on board of American vessels, lying in British waters, are not within the exclusive jurisdiction of England; or under the exclusive operation of English law; and this founds the broad distinction between the cases. If persons, guilty of crimes in the United States, seek an asylum in the British dominions, they will not be demanded, until provision for such cases be made by treaty; because the giving up of criminals, fugitive from justice, is agreed and understood to be a matter in which every nation regulates its conduct according to its own discretion. It is no breach of comity to refuse such surrender.

On the other hand, vessels of the United States, driven by necessity into British ports, and staying there no longer than such necessity exists, violating no law, nor having intent to violate any law, will claim, and there will be claimed for them, protection and security, freedom from molestation, and from all interference with the character or condition of persons or things on board. In the opinion of the Government of the United States, such vessels, so driven and so detained by necessity in a friendly port, ought to be regarded as still pursuing their original voyage, and turned out of their direct course only by disaster, or by wrongful violence; they ought to receive all assistance necessary to enable them to resume that direct course; and interference and molestation by local authorities, where the whole voyage is lawful, both in act and intent, is ground for just and grave complaint.

Your lordship's discernment and large experience in affairs cannot fail to suggest to you how important it is, to merchants and navigators engaged in the coasting trade of a country so large in extent as the United States, that they should feel secure against all but the ordinary causes of maritime loss. The possessions of the two Governments closely approach each other. This proximity, which ought to make us friends and good neighbors, may, without proper care and regulation, itself prove a ceaseless cause of vexation, irritation, and disquiet.

If your lordship has no authority to enter into a stipulation by treaty for the prevention of such occurrences hereafter, as have already happened, occurrences so likely to disturb that peace between the two countries

which it is the object of your lordship's mission to establish and confirm, you may still be so far acquainted with the sentiments of your Government, as to be able to engage that instructions shall be given to the local authorities in the islands, which shall lead them to regulate their conduct in conformity with the rights of citizens of the United States, and the just expectations of their Government, and in such manner as shall, in future, take away all reasonable ground of complaint. It would be with the most profound regret that the President should see that, whilst it is now hoped so many other subjects of difference may be harmoniously adjusted, nothing should be done in regard to this dangerous source of future collisions.

I avail myself of this occasion to renew to your lordship the assurances of my distinguished consideration.

DANIEL WEBSTER.

Lord Ashburton, &c. &c.

Lord Ashburton to Mr. Webster.

WASHINGTON, August 6, 1842.

SIR: You may be well assured that I am duly sensible of the great importance of the subject to which you call my attention, in the note which you did me the honor of addressing me on the 1st instant, in which you inform me that the President had been pleased to express his regret that I was not empowered by my Government to enter into a formal stipulation for the better security of vessels of the United States, when meeting with disasters in passing between the United States and the Bahama Islands, and driven by such disasters into British ports.

It is, I believe, unnecessary that I should tell you that the case of the Creole was known in London a few days only before my departure. No complaint had at that time been made by Mr. Everett. The subject was not therefore among those which it was the immediate object of my mission to discuss. But, at the same time, I must admit that, from the moment I was acquainted with the facts of this case, I was sensible of all its importance, and I should not think myself without power to consider of some adjustment of, and remedy for, a great acknowledged difficulty, if I could see my way clearly to any satisfactory course, and if I had not arrived at the conclusion, after very anxious consideration, that, for the reasons which I will state, this question had better be treated in London, where it will have a much increased chance of settlement, on terms likely to satisfy the interests of the United States.

The immediate case of the Creole would be easily disposed of; but it involves a class and description of cases which, for the purpose of affording that security you seek for the trade of America through the Bahama channel, brings into consideration questions of law, both national and international, of the highest importance; and, to increase the delicacy and difficulty of the subject, public feeling is sensitively alive to every thing connected with it. These circumstances bring me to the conviction that, although I really believe that much may be done to meet the wishes of

your Government, the means of doing so would be best considered in London, where immediate reference may be had to the highest authorities, on every point of delicacy and difficulty that may arise. Whatever I might attempt would be more or less under the disadvantage of being fettered by apprehensions of responsibility, and I might thereby be kept within limits which my Government at home might disregard. In other words, I believe you would have a better chance in this settlement with them than with me. I state this after some imperfect endeavors, by correspondence, to come at satisfactory explanations. If I were in this instance treating of ordinary material interests, I should proceed with more confidence; but anxious as I unfeignedly am that all questions likely to disturb the future good understanding between us should be averted, I strongly recommend this question of the security of the Bahama channel being referred for discussion in London.

This opinion is more decidedly confirmed by your very elaborate and important argument on the application of the general principles of the law of nations to these subjects, an argument to which your authority necessarily gives great weight, but in which I would not presume to follow you with my own imperfect means. Great Britain and the United States, covering all the seas of the world with their commerce, have the greatest possible interest in maintaining sound and pure principles of international law, as well as the practice of reciprocal aid and good offices in all their harbors and possessions. With respect to the latter, it is satisfactory to know that the disposition of the respective Governments and people leaves little to be desired, with the single exception of those delicate and perplexing questions which have recently arisen from the state of slavery; and even these seem confined, and likely to continue to be confined, to the narrow passage of the Bahama channel. At no other part of the British possessions are American vessels with slaves ever likely to touch, nor are they likely to touch there otherwise than from the pressure of very urgent necessity. The difficulty, therefore, as well as the desired remedy, is apparently confined within narrow limits.

Upon the great general principles affecting this case we do not differ. You admit that if slaves, the property of American citizens, escape into British territories, it is not expected that they will be restored; and you may be well assured that there is no wish on our part that they should reach our shores, or that British possessions should be used as decoys for the violators of the laws of a friendly neighbor.

When these slaves do reach us, by whatever means, there is no alternative. The present state of British law is in this respect too well known to require repetition, nor need I remind you that it is exactly the same with the laws of every part of the United States where a state of slavery is not recognized; and that the slaves put on shore at Nassau would be dealt with exactly as would a foreign slave landed under any circumstances whatever at Boston.

But what constitutes the being within British dominion, from which these consequences are to follow? Is a vessel passing through the Bahama channel and forced involuntarily, either from storm or mutiny, into British waters, to be so considered? What power have the authorities

of those islands to take cognizance of persons or property in such vessels? These are questions which you, sir, have discussed at great length, and with evident ability. Although you have advanced some propositions which rather surprise and startle me, I do not pretend to judge of them: but what is very clear is, that great principles are involved in a discussion which it would ill become me lightly to enter upon; and I am confirmed by this consideration in wishing that the subject be referred to where it will be perfectly weighed and examined.

It behooves the authorities of our two Governments well to guard themselves against establishing by their diplomatic intercourse false precedents and principles, and that they do not, for the purpose of meeting a passing difficulty, set examples which may hereafter mislead the world.

It is not intended on this occasion to consider in detail the particular instances which have given rise to these discussions. They have already been stated and explained. Our object is rather to look to the means of future prevention of such occurrences. That this may be obtained I have little doubt, although we may not be able immediately to agree on the precise stipulations of a treaty. On the part of Great Britain, there are certain great principles too deeply rooted in the consciences and sympathies of the people for any minister to be able to overlook; and any engagement I might make in opposition to them would be instantly disavowed; but at the same time that we maintain our own laws within our own territories, we are bound to respect those of our neighbors, and to listen to every possible suggestion of means of averting from them every annoyance and injury. I have great confidence that this may be effectually done in the present instance; but the case to be met and remedied is new, and must not be too hastily dealt with. You may, however, be assured that measures so important for the preservation of friendly intercourse between the two countries shall not be neglected.

In the mean time, I can engage that instructions shall be given to the Governors of Her Majesty's colonies on the southern borders of the United States, to execute their own laws with careful attention to the wish of their Government to maintain good neighborhood, and that there shall be no officious interference with American vessels driven by accident or by violence into those ports. The laws and duties of hospitality shall be executed, and these seem neither to require nor to justify any further inquiry into the state of persons or things on board of vessels so situated, than may be indispensable to enforce the observance of the municipal law of the colony and the proper regulation of its harbors and waters.

A strict and careful attention to these rules, applied in good faith to all transactions as they arise, will, I hope and believe, without any abandonment of great general principles, lead to the avoidance of any excitement or agitation on this very sensitive subject of slavery, and, consequently, of those irritating feelings which may have a tendency to bring into peril all the great interests connected with the maintenance of peace.

I further trust that friendly sentiments and a conviction of the importance of cherishing them, will, on all occasions, lead the two countries to consider favorably any further arrangements which may be judged necessary for the reciprocal protection of their interests.

I hope, sir, that this explanation on this very important subject will be satisfactory to the President, and that he will see in it no diminution of that earnest desire, which you have been pleased to recognize in me, to perform my work of reconciliation and friendship; but that he will rather perceive in my suggestion, in this particular instance, that it is made with a well-founded hope of thereby better obtaining the object we have in view.

I beg leave to renew to you, sir, the assurance of my high consideration.

ASHBURTON.

Hon. Daniel Webster, &c. &c.

Mr. Webster to Lord Ashburton.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, }
Washington, Aug. 8, 1842. }

MY LORD: I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your lordship's note of the 6th instant, in answer to mine of the 1st, upon the subject of a stipulation for the better security of American vessels driven by accident or carried by force into the British West India ports.

The President would have been gratified if you had felt yourself at liberty to proceed at once to consider some proper arrangement, by formal treaty, for this object; but there may be weight in the reasons which you urge for referring such mode of stipulation for consideration to London.

The President places his reliance on those principles of public law which were stated in my note to your lordship, and which are regarded as equally well founded and important, and on your lordship's engagements, that instructions shall be given to the Governors of Her Majesty's colonies to execute their own laws with careful attention to the wish of their Government to maintain good neighborhood; and that there shall be no officious interference with American vessels driven by accident or by violence into those ports—that the laws and duties of hospitality shall be executed, and that these seem neither to require nor to justify any further inquisition into the state of persons or things on board of vessels so situated, than may be indispensable to enforce the observance of the municipal law of the colony, and the proper regulation of its harbors and waters. He indulges the hope, nevertheless, that, actuated by a just sense of what is due to the mutual interests of the two countries, and the maintenance of a permanent peace between them, Her Majesty's Government will not fail to see the importance of removing, by such further stipulations, by treaty or otherwise, as may be found to be necessary, all cause of complaint connected with this subject.

I have the honor to be, with high consideration, your lordship's obedient servant,

DANIEL WEBSTER.

To Lord Ashburton, &c. &c.

EXTRADITION AND SUPPRESSION OF THE SLAVE TRADE.

Lord Ashburton to Mr. Webster.

WASHINGTON, Aug. 9, 1842.

SIR: By the third article of the convention which I have this day signed with you, there is an agreement for the reciprocal delivery in certain cases of criminals from justice, but it becomes necessary that I should apprise you that this article can have no legal effect within the dominions of Great Britain, until confirmed by act of Parliament. It is possible that Parliament may not be in session before the exchange of the ratification of the convention, but its sanction shall be asked at the earliest possible period, and no doubt can be entertained that it will be given. In her Majesty's territories in Canada, where cases for acting under this convention are likely to be of more frequent occurrence, the Governor-General has sufficient power under the authority of local legislation, and the convention will there be acted upon so soon as its ratification shall be known; but it becomes my duty to inform you of the short delay which may possibly intervene in giving full effect to it where the confirmation by Parliament becomes necessary for its execution.

I beg, sir, to renew to you the assurance of my high consideration.

ASHBURTON.

HON. DANIEL WEBSTER, &c. &c.

Mr. Paine to Mr. Webster.

WASHINGTON, May 2, 1842.

SIR: The agreement between Commander William Tucker, of the British Navy, and myself, is so connected with numerous instructions respecting proceedings on the coast of Africa, that I should furnish a copy of all if the object were to justify myself; but as the wish of the State Department seems to be to ascertain the nature of the agreement itself, and the action of myself thereon, and as I wish to forward this view promptly, I shall restrict myself to these points, commencing with the agreement, of which the following is a copy:

"Commander William Tucker, of Her Britannic Majesty's sloop *Wolverine*, and senior officer on the west coast of Africa, and Lieutenant John S. Paine, commanding the United States schooner *Grampus*, in order to carry into execution, as far as possible, the orders and views of their respective Governments respecting the suppression of the slave trade, hereby request each other and agree to detain all vessels under American colors found to be fully equipped for, and engaged in the slave trade; that if proved to be American property, they shall be handed over to the United States schooner *Grampus*, or any other American cruiser, and that if proved to be Spanish, Portuguese, Brazilian, or English property, to any of Her Britannic Majesty's cruisers employed on the west

coast of Africa for the suppression of the slave trade, so far as their respective laws and treaties will permit."

Signed and exchanged at Sierra Leone, this 11th day of March, 1840.

JOHN S. PAINE,
Commanding United States schooner *Grampus*.

WILLIAM TUCKER,
Commanding Her B. M. sloop *Wolverine*.

The objects of this agreement were mainly —

1st. To meet the very common case with slavers, that of having on board two sets of papers.

2d. To let it be known that there subsisted between the British and American force a good understanding, and a disposition to coöperate for the purpose indicated, as far as possible, without violating existing treaties.

A copy was forwarded by me to the Navy Department, to which I received the following reply:

NAVY DEPARTMENT, JUNE 4, 1840.

SIR: Your letter of 23d March last, with its enclosures, has been received.

The instructions given you, for your government, when you left the United States, while they indicated a friendly coöperation with the commanders of the British cruisers in the suppression of the slave trade on the coast of Africa, as likely to aid in detecting the frauds resorted to by those engaged in it for the purpose of avoiding discovery and escaping punishments, were not intended to authorize any such arrangement as that which it appears you have made with the commander of Her British Majesty's sloop *Wolverine*, and by which you delegated to that officer the right to seize vessels under American colors, and under certain circumstances, to detain them, with the view of turning them over to the *Grampus*, or other United States cruisers.

Such a delegation of power is not only unauthorized by your instructions, but contrary to the established and well known principles and policy of your government, and is therefore not sanctioned by the department.

You will make known the views of the Department on this subject to the commander of the *Wolverine*, and inform him that the arrangement made with him, having been disapproved by your Government, cannot on your part be complied with; the great object of the coöperation being to obviate the difficulties of capture, growing out of assuming Portuguese, English, Spanish, or Brazilian colors, when overhauled by an American, or American colors, when overhauled by a British cruiser.

For this purpose, you are authorized to cruise in company and in co-operation with any British vessel of war employed on the slave coast, in the pursuit of objects similar to your own.

I am, respectfully, your obedient servant,

J. K. PAULDING.

*Lieutenant John S. Paine, commanding U. S. schooner Grampus,
Sierra Leone, Coast of Africa.*

[Notice of the disapproval of the above agreement by the Secretary of the Navy was communicated by Lieutenant Commander Paine to the senior officer of the British Navy commanding on the western coast of Africa, in a note dated June 17, 1841, Capt. Tucker not having been fallen in with after the receipt of the Secretary's letter.]

M I S C E L L A N Y .

VISIT TO THE COAL PITS.

ON one of the days while the British Association was in session at Manchester, a large number of members of the Association, pursuant to an invitation from Lord Francis Egerton, visited the Worsley Tunnel and collieries belonging to the trustees of the late Duke of Bridgewater. At 8 o'clock in the morning special boats were employed on the Duke's canal to convey the visitors, amounting in number to about 300, including a fair sprinkling of ladies.

About 11 o'clock the parties entered the extraordinary tunnels, having been previously furnished with suitable dresses, and the appearance of many of them was ludicrous in the extreme. The tunnels are eight miles in length, nearly extending to the town of Bolton; and, taken together, there is a distance of no less than 37 miles cut out of coal and rock, which is now made subservient to the conveyance of coals in flat-bottomed boats, by being converted into a subterranean canal.

The entrances to the coal-pits are from the sides of the canal, (the latter being about 80 yards below the surface,) and in these awful-looking places no less than about 2,000 human beings are employed, the produce of their labors when in full work being the cutting, gathering, and shipping of about 3,000 tons of coals per week. The excursion was any thing but pleasant, as the parties were kept in the bowels of the earth for nearly seven hours in a close atmosphere, having nothing to observe but arched brick-work and rugged rock, the conductors reminding them every now and then of the necessity of keeping their candles down for "fear of the brimstone," with which sulphurous material they stated some parts of the mines abound. There were altogether a dozen boats, about six feet in width, heavily laden with male and female visitors, and the tunnels not being more than two feet wider than the boats, they could not pass each other, and the consequence was that the company were detained most disagreeably at the will of those very curious geologists, determined upon ascertaining, if possible, the strata of the mines, and every thing else of little consequence connected with

them. Clothes baskets full of bread and cheese and barrels of ale were in plentiful supply from the sides of the pits, and eagerly devoured by the occupants of the boats, many of whom went without breakfast in the anticipation that their coal-pit exploration would not occupy their time longer than half an hour. Four of the boats had not returned at seven o'clock this evening to Worsley. An immense number of young persons appeared to be employed in these collieries, many of them females, (girls from 12 to 15 years of age.) The females wore trousers, and there was considerable difficulty in distinguishing them from the boys. The compartments in which many of them work are so small that they cannot stand upright in them.

Lord F. Egerton and his lady have established schools in the neighborhood for their instruction. Mr. F. Smith, Mr. Denby, and Mr. R. Leigh, jun., the agents of the Bridgewater estate, were very kind in furnishing the members of the association with every information.

HAND LOCOMOTIVE CARRIAGE.

A most interesting and satisfactory trial was made a few days since of a novel self-moving carriage, very neatly fitted up and propelled by two persons upon a good line of road, in the neighborhood of Holywell, to the delight and amusement of a number of respectable individuals, who had assembled to witness the experiment as announced by the inventor, a medical gentleman of that town. It ascended a hill, of no inconsiderable elevation, at the rate of about six miles an hour, evidently without fatigue to those who worked the machine, and persons on foot could not keep up with it. On the level it attained a speed of about eight or nine miles an hour; and, in returning upon the declivity, it shot forth, like a small steam engine, at the rate of about fifteen miles per hour, and was in a few moments out of sight. Hitherto, these machines have been incapable of ascending hills, or the slightest acclivities, from the great labor required in their propulsion, and, always being on three wheels, are extremely liable to upset, and consequently dangerous; but it would require more than an ordinary accident to upset the one alluded to. It is therefore perfectly safe, and its motion remarkably easy, being fitted up on a number of light elliptic springs. Its velocity down hill is instantly checked by a very simple and efficacious plan: thus the carriage is perfectly under the control of the worker or engineer. Its progress is materially aided by the wind acting on a swivelling sail, by which its propulsion is much assisted, and the labor rendered most trivial. It appears to be admirably calculated for the recreation and health of young ladies and gentlemen as a salutary source of exercise, for which purpose it appears to be intended by the inventor, especially for schools and families with extensive parks and grounds. — *London Times*.

CHRONOLOGY.

FOREIGN.

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF GREAT BRITAIN.				Years ended Jan. 5.	1840.	1841.	1842.
INCOME.				Years ended Jan. 5.	1840.	1841.	1842.
	£	£	£	Additional 10 per ct. Other ass'd Taxes	266,880	260,919	311,257
					3,932,689	4,152,287	4,715,338
CUSTOMS & EXCISE.				Post Office	2,390,764	1,349,604	1,465,540
Foreign	1,341,821	1,390,581	1,361,453	Crown Lands	357,815	422,422	413,920
Rum	1,373,630	1,155,613	1,063,067	Other Resources	248,310	300,368	27,008
British	5,442,478	5,301,664	5,179,175	Total Income	52,058,949	51,693,510	52,315,431
Malt	4,545,949	4,963,602	5,263,363	Excess of Expenditure over Income	1,381,938	1,750,543	2,140,355
Hops	260,079	341,440	69,055		£ 53,440,287	53,444,053	54,455,786
Wine	1,849,710	1,791,646	1,721,281	EXPENDITURE.			
Sugar & Molasses	4,827,019	4,650,017	5,307,675	Years ended Jan. 5.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Tea	3,658,800	3,472,664	3,973,608		£	£	£
Coffee	779,115	921,552	837,723	REVENUE—Charges of Collection.			
Tobacco and Snuff	3,496,687	3,586,192	3,550,825	Civil { Customs	1,494,248	1,464,433	1,621,180
Butter	213,078	257,577	262,614	Dep'ts. { Excise			
Cheese	105,219	117,679	134,622	Preventive Service, Land Guard,			
Currants & Raisins	323,882	339,660	410,827	Revenue, Police			
Corn	1,098,778	1,156,640	568,341	Cruisers, & Harbor Vessels	567,626	577,083	561,000
Cotton and Wool imported	559,679	765,491	694,576	Stamps	2,061,694	2,041,921	1,941,100
Silk	202,304	240,626	257,735	Assessed Taxes	156,709	150,133	180,260
Hides and Skins	62,522	50,504	79,119	Other Ordinary	169,578	165,775	174,712
Paper	629,817	663,982	666,219	Revenues	64,223	54,678	55,300
Soap	784,168	808,201	815,984	Superannuation & other Allowances	369,101	357,738	352,070
Candles & Tallow	162,000	166,283	205,839	Total Revenue	2,822,496	2,772,560	2,724,660
Coals, sea-borne	8,447	6,927	11,925	PUBLIC DEBT.			
Glass	719,348	736,553	682,192	Interest of Permanent Debt	34,163,866	24,322,269	24,223,220
Bricks, Tiles, and Slates	463,426	523,360	443,018	Terminable Annuities	4,271,458	4,244,444	4,076,770
Timber	1,603,194	1,730,551	1,500,315	Management	123,698	134,341	135,600
Auctions	296,404	316,246	311,768	Interest on Exchange Bills	836,701	642,997	98,465
Excise Licenses	1,028,655	1,054,115	1,036,562	Total Debt	39,445,600	32,373,951	29,442,660
Post-Horse Duties	226,261	216,636	199,364	CIVIL GOVERNMENT.			
Miscellaneous of Customs and Excise	1,546,716	1,617,064	1,570,477	Purposes: Salaries of Household, Tradesmen's Bills, Allowances to the several branches of the Royal Family, and to his Royal Highness Leopold.	371,800	371,800	371,800
Total Customs and Excise	37,911,506	38,127,408	38,118,222				
STAMPS.							
Deeds and other Instruments	1,699,283	1,710,533	1,665,297				
Probates and Legacies	2,017,636	2,098,078	2,132,473				
Insurance { Marine	292,978	299,396	254,496				
Fire	922,005	944,321	904,146				
Bills of Exchange, Bankers' Notes	781,629	773,114	743,312				
Newspapers and Advertisements	363,420	376,006	377,471				
Stage Coaches	497,216	438,047	460,733				
Receipts	173,047	175,070	174,747				
Other Stamp Duties	469,001	473,266	473,665				
ASSESSED AND LAND TAXES.	7,217,266	7,267,622	7,276,360				
Land Taxes	1,174,100	1,181,933	1,214,431				
Windows	1,298,622	4,404,642	1,664,063				
Servants	201,482	216,923	215,944				
Horses	364,266	416,170	464,592				
Carriages	447,467	481,499	414,676				
Dogs	159,552	170,951	172,190				

Years ended Jan. 5.	1840.	1841.	1842.	Years ended Jan. 5.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Prince of Coburg, (now King of the Belgians)	£ 306,000	£ 323,922	£ 318,000	Army and Ordnance, Insurrection in Canada	£ 647,000	£ 553,919	£ 117,158
The Lord Lieutenant of Ireland's Establishment	35,163	32,359	32,465	China Expedition Bounties, &c., for promoting Fisheries	14,553	14,607	13,604
The Salaries and Expenses of the Houses of Parliament (including Printing)	139,368	122,410	122,717	Public Works	321,702	351,837	356,434
Civil Departments, including Superannuation Allowances	411,783	518,940	498,551	Payments out of the Revenue of Crown Lands, for Improvements and various Public Services	146,466	244,741	213,315
Other Annuities, Pensions, & Superannuation Allowances on Consolidated Fund and on the Gross Revenue	367,033	349,397	319,299	Post-Office: Charges of Collection & other Payments	746,879	848,366	931,379
Pensions, Civil List	1,546	2,743	4,022	Quarantine and Warehousing Establishments	118,594	119,477	131,326
				Miscellaneous Services not classed under the foregoing heads	1,767,010	1,410,640	1,809,378
Total Civil Government	1,634,683	1,731,577	1,666,854		53,440,287	53,444,063	54,465,318
JUSTICE.							
Courts of Justice	525,501	534,945	533,761				
Police and Criminal Prosecutions	510,201	577,363	571,805				
Correction	403,374	385,365	497,060				
Total Justice	1,438,976	1,397,603	1,602,626				
DIPLOMATIC.							
Foreign Ministers' Salaries and Pensions	188,934	168,765	165,770				
Consuls' Salaries and Superannuation Allowances	115,929	124,762	126,800				
Disbursements, Outfit	48,100	51,906	36,571				
Total Diplomatic	350,963	345,433	328,141				
FORCES.							
ARMY.							
Effective; Charge	3,902,661	4,400,595	3,971,425				
Non-Effective; Charge	2,569,781	2,469,672	2,446,966				
Total Army	6,472,442	6,870,267	6,418,391				
NAVY.							
Effective; Charge	3,993,225	4,169,696	5,103,358				
Non-Effective; Charge	1,496,979	1,444,945	1,385,716				
Total Navy	5,490,204	5,614,641	6,489,074				
ORDNANCE.							
Effective; Charge	1,790,464	1,474,577	1,655,363				
Non-Effective; Charge	160,746	157,063	159,739				
Total Ordnance	1,951,210	1,631,640	1,815,102				
Total Forces	12,964,076	14,119,412	14,722,627				

* No part of this income is at present paid for the use of King Leopold. The Trustees, after discharging certain Annuities and Pensions to the Servants and Establishment of the late Princess Charlotte, repay the Balance of the Annuity to the Exchequer. The sum so repaid in the last year was £35,000.

G. CLARK.
Whitehall Treasury Chambers, 6th June, 1843.

ROME, August 25. IRON STEAMERS ON THE TIBER. The three steamers built in England for the Papal Government have, at last, reached this capital. They have already given proofs of the solidity of their construction, having, in the space of a few hours, towed three vessels, heavily laden, from the mouth of the Tiber to Rome. The banks of the river were lined with an immense crowd of people, curious to witness a spectacle so novel to them. Cardinal Fosti, the Pope's treasurer, and several other prelates, were present at the arrival of the steamers. Notwithstanding the shallowness of the water, the windings of the river, and the sand-banks which frequently obstruct its bed, the steamers ascended, in four hours, a distance which generally required nearly as many days.

LONDON, September 1. THE LATE FIRE AT HAMBURG. The committee appointed to receive subscriptions for the relief of sufferers from the fire at Hamburg, have just published their report, by which it appears that the whole sum which has passed through their hands is £27,565, besides contributions made in different parts of the country, amounting to about £13,000, exclusive of clothing and other articles; and that the total amount received by the committee at Hamburg from all countries, up to the 5th of July, is £268,590. Great as these contributions are, the committee remark, while expressing their gratitude, that but little assistance has as yet been afforded in comparison with the damage done.

LONDON, Sept. 5. BRITISH BANK

CIRCULATION. The following statement shows the comparative circulation of the present and the last year at this period.

The increase which has taken place in the circulation of the Bank of England, has been occasioned, to a great extent, by the amalgamation of several private banks and joint stocks within the last twelve months into the capacity of agents for the Bank parlor, and their ceasing as such to issue any thing except Bank of England paper. The decrease in the circulation of the private and joint-stock banks is partly accounted for by the same cause, but chiefly by the general stagnation of trade. With a constant glut of money in London, there is still little evidence of a greater supply of bills.

The circulation of the United Kingdom last year, as compared with its present state, is as follows:

	1842. Aug. 30. £	1841. Aug. 30. £	In- crease. £	De- crease. £
Bank of England,	20,351,000	17,928,000	2,423,000	
Private banks,	5,150,328	5,944,000		693,672
Joint stock banks,	2,323,000	3,215,263		392,263
Chartered, private, & joint stock banks in Scotland,	2,674,335	3,074,393		399,568
Bank of Ireland,	2,531,750	2,950,875		119,125
Irish private and joint st'k,	1,632,617	1,898,261		235,744
Bullion in the bank,	9,570,000	4,801,000	4,769,000	
Gross circulation,	35,463,920	34,681,189	582,738	

The result is, that notwithstanding the increase of £2,423,000 on the part of the Bank of England, and of £4,769,000 of addition to the store of bullion, the decrease of the notes in issue by the joint-stock and private banks, has counterbalanced it inasmuch that the whole currency of the United Kingdom is now only £562,738 greater than it was in August, 1841.

LONDON, Sept. 6. SPANISH BANK. The following plan is officially published, of a bank to be established with British capital:

Art. 1. That the bank is to be under the immediate protection of the Spanish nation; to be endowed with particular and exclusive privileges; and to form a corporation with complete liberty of action under all circumstances; so that whatever may be the political relations

of Spain and Great Britain, the funds, the privileges, and acts be secured and continued, even in case of war between the two countries.

Art. 2. That the Spanish government bind itself to afford its protection and support to this establishment; that the Spanish government secure by law the admission of the bills of exchange and promissory notes of this bank in the payment of all taxes, contributions, and other fiscal imposts, so long as these bills of exchange and promissory notes are regularly paid in the current coin of the country.

Art. 3. That the bills of exchange and promissory notes of this bank be made by law payable in the money of the country.

Art. 4. That the proposal for the establishment of this bank having been first made by an Englishman, in relation with the Spanish government, it is hoped that government will zealously cooperate in the attainment of the object proposed.

Art. 5. That the bank is to be an incorporated company, whose chief and central establishment is to be at Seville, or other place agreed upon, under the name of the "Anglo-Spanish Bank of the South of Spain;" its privileges to be extended according to its own wants, and those of the community for which it has been established. The bank, if thought necessary, to have offices or branches in London and Madrid, for the better despatch of its business.

Art. 6. The number of shares in this bank to be twenty thousand, of £100 sterling each.

Art. 7. Any number of shares demanded by Spaniards to be given to them; but it is expected that they will take a portion, not less than a fifth of the whole.

Art. 8. In drawing up regulations for the management or working of the bank, much importance should be given to the local junta, or committee, to be formed in Spain, by whose advice and information the committee in London may act and give instructions. In consequence of the greater experience in banking affairs in England, the opinion of the committee there should serve as a guide for the direction of that in Spain.

Art. 9. The responsibility of the debts and obligations of the company to be limited to the amount of the shares in clear and express terms.

Art. 10. *Exclusive Privileges.* These to consist in the power of issuing bank notes of five dollars value and upwards, and

bills of exchange, payable on sight, or in twenty-one days. All other banks and private individuals to be prevented from issuing notes and bills of this description, within the limits of district defined in the charter of the new bank.

Art. 11. The bank to have no restriction whatever in its operations; that is to say, to have the power of receiving in guarantee all kinds of value and merchandise, or representative of capital, as funded debt, specie, precious metals in bar, bills of exchange, and promissory notes, securities upon loans, &c.; and also the right of disposing of these guarantees or pledges.

Art. 12. The bank to be prohibited by law from taking more than six per cent. interest, and permitted to take any rate under this amount.

LONDON, September 7. LAUNCH OF TWO SHIPS OF WAR. On Monday afternoon, her Majesty's ship *Superb*, of 80 guns, was launched from the Royal Dockyard at Pembroke. The *Superb* is a sister ship to the *Collingwood*, of 80 guns, launched from Pembroke Dockyard about a year ago, and, like the latter, has been constructed on the Symonion plan. The following are the dimensions of the *Superb*:

	Feet	Inches
Extreme length,	190	0
Length of keel for tonnage,	153	6
Breadth for tonnage,	56	3
Breadth moulded,	55	6
Depth in hold,	23	4

Burthen in tons, 2,563 38 94.

Yesterday, the *Albion*, of 90 guns, was launched from the Dockyard, Devonport. She is one of the largest two-decked ships ever built, and, if the expectations formed of her sailing should be realized, she will be a valuable addition to the naval force of the nation. She is to carry thirty-two 68-pounders on her lower deck, and will throw a broadside of 2,016 lbs. of metal. The following are the dimensions and armament of the *Albion*:

	Feet	Inches
Extreme length from figure-head to taffrail,	243	1
Length of the gun-deck,	204	0
Extreme breadth,	60	2¼
Height of figure-head above under part of keel,	52	11
Height of taffrail,	55	8
Depth in hold,	23	8
Burthen,	3,110½	tons.
Weight when launched,	2,400	
Weight when equipped for		

sea, with three months' complete stores, 4,230

	No.
Lower deck,	68-p. 32
Upper deck,	32-p. 32
Q. deck & fore-castle,	32-p. 26

Weight of broadside of shot in pounds, 2,016

LONDON, September 17. VISIT OF QUEEN VICTORIA TO SCOTLAND. The Queen with the royal party who accompanied her to Scotland returned to-day, and after landing at Woolwich proceeded by the Great Western Railway to Windsor Castle. The Queen set out on this excursion on Monday morning, August 29. She left Windsor at an early hour, and after proceeding by railway to London, she was conducted directly to Woolwich, where she embarked on board the yacht *Royal George*. Before 7 o'clock the cannon of the Dockyard Battery, announcing the Queen's approach, surprised in their beds many of her loving subjects, who had intended to be spectators of the embarkation. The morning was wet and hazy, yet there was no delay, and another discharge of artillery soon announced that the sovereign was on board the ship. The *Royal George* was taken in tow by the steamer *Monkey*, and accompanied by a flotilla of government steamers, the *Black Eagle*, *Rhadamanthus*, *Shearwater*, *Fearless*, *Trinity*, and *Trident*, proceeded slowly down the river. The Queen and Prince Albert were attended by the Earl of Delaware, Lord Chamberlain; the Earl of Liverpool, Lord Steward; the Earl of Jersey, Master of the House; the Earl of Morton, Lord in Waiting; the Duchess of Norfolk, Lady in Waiting; and other personages of her household. The attendants were distributed in the different vessels. The royal yacht was subsequently taken in tow by the more powerful steamers *Black Eagle* and *Shearwater*, when the squadron proceeded at the rate of about seven miles an hour. After reaching the mouth of the Thames, it coasted along the eastern shore of England, within sight of the principal headlands, and was frequently met by the Queen's subjects, in vessels of various forms from the different ports, eager to show their loyalty, and to indulge their curiosity by meeting and cheering her on her voyage. After a pleasant voyage of three days, the royal squadron came to anchor at half-past 1 o'clock on the morning of September 1, in Leith roads, and at 9 o'clock the Queen

landed at Granton pier, in Edinburgh. The Queen was received with every demonstration of respect and attachment in Edinburgh, and every other part of Scotland visited by her. She took her residence first at Dalkeith Castle, the seat of the Duke of Buccleugh. On the 5th she set out on a tour to the highlands, making a visit by the way to the Earl of Kinnoul at Duplin Castle, on the 6th passed through Perth to the palace at Scone, and on the following day to Taymouth Castle, the seat of the Marquis of Breadalhan. She afterwards made an aquatic excursion on Loch Tay, and afterwards visited Drummond Castle. From this excursion the Queen returned to Edinburgh, whither vast numbers of persons flocked from all parts of Scotland for the purpose of obtaining a sight of her. The Queen and Prince Albert on their return to London were conveyed in the steamer Trident, which proved much more comfortable, from the more agreeable motion, than the yacht. The squadron of steamers came up the Thames on the morning of the 17th, in view of an immense number of spectators, who had been impatiently waiting their approach, and at 10 o'clock arrived at the dockyards. The Queen and Prince Albert were soon conveyed on shore, by the admiralty barge, amidst the cheers of the multitude and the thunder of cannon, and they proceeded directly to the railway station, and thence to Windsor Castle, where they safely arrived after an absence of three weeks.

COLOGNE, September 4. His Majesty the King William IV. of Prussia, with the Queen, after attending divine worship in the Protestant church, joined the grand procession formed by the Building Society for laying the foundation stone of the building for the completion of the cathedral. After mass, the procession drew up in the court of the Cathedral, on the south side of which had been erected, for their Majesties, a pavilion surmounted with foliage. Under Gothic arches formed on both sides were seats for the Royal guests. The foundation-stone lay on the platform or estrade in front of the rows of seats. When the spectators had filled all the seats, the King and Queen advanced from a side gate of the Cathedral, attended by the Princes and officers of their household, and took their seats in the Pavilion. The procession now occupied the interior of the amphitheatrical space. The heads of the Building Society, and the clergy, with the

Archbishop of Geissel, moved towards His Majesty at the foundation-stone. When the Archbishop approached it, he turned to the King, and respectfully uncovered his head. The people then gave three loud cheers. After the usual rites of the Catholic church, and the performance of a chant, the King took up the trowel, and spoke in a loud and clear voice, as follows:

"I take this opportunity to welcome heartily the numerous guests who, as members of the Cathedral Building Association, have met here from all parts of Germany to celebrate this day. Gentlemen of Cologne, a great event is about to take place among you. Your feelings will tell you that it is no common edifice you are about to erect. It is the offspring of the spirit of union and concord among Germans of every creed. When I reflect on this, my eyes are filled with joyful tears, and I thank God that I have lived to witness this day. Here, where this foundation-stone is laid, will arise the noblest portals in the whole world. Germany builds them; may they, by the grace of God, be to her the forerunners of a new, a great, and a happy future. Far from them be all that is anti-German; that is to say, all that is base, false, and insincere. May this portal of honor never be disgraced by bad faith, or by the unworthy disunion of German princes or of the German people. May this structure never disturb the peace of creeds, nor impede the progress of social order; and may that spirit which once interrupted the building of this house of God, and injured the well-being of our common fatherland, find no entrance here. The feeling that has prompted the building of these portals is the same that twenty-nine years ago made us break our chains, rolled back insult from our native land, and division from its shores; it is the same spirit which, fortified by the blessing of my departed father, (the last of those three great kings,) two years ago displayed itself with a vigor undiminished in power and unimpaired by time; it is the spirit of German union and of German power; and oh! may the portals of Cologne Cathedral be its most glorious triumph! May the spirit which has given birth to this great work serve to complete it; and may it prove to most remote generations, that Germany is great and mighty by the union of her rulers and her people, and that she has without bloodshed consolidated the peace of the world! May it

attest that Prussia is happy in the glory and prosperity of her own father-land, and in the fraternization of her different religious creeds, all one and alike in the eyes of the Divine Creator. I pray to God that the Cathedral of Cologne may continue to tower above this town and all Germany, and that it may be a witness of peace and happiness among mankind until time shall be no more. Gentlemen of Cologne, your city has by this structure obtained a high preëminence over all the other towns of Germany; she has this day proved herself worthy of that preëminence. Join then with me as I strike the trowel on the foundation-stone. Shout with me the thousand times repeated rallying cry of "*Alaaf Cologne!*"

This speech, spoken with the most lively enthusiasm, kindled like lightning in the hearts of the thousands present, and called forth such an astounding storm of joyful shouts and acclamation, that we are justified in saying, that the history of the world can hardly show a similar meeting between the Prince and his people.

The King, having once more looked joyfully and enthusiastically on the assembled multitude, and on the Cathedral, and the cheering having burst forth afresh, His Majesty struck the usual three blows with the hammer on the foundation stone, and then retired to the Tribune, where he was received by the Queen, in a manner that produced a deep impression on the minds of all present.

KIEL, (Denmark,) Sept. 10. GREAT GERMAN RAILROAD. The Journal of this city contains a convention concluded between Denmark, Prussia, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and the free Hanse towns of Lubeck and Hamburg, for the purpose of establishing a communication between Berlin and Hamburg, by means of a railroad, of which the following is the substance:

"The governments of Denmark, Prussia, and Mecklenburg-Schwerin, with the free Hanse towns of Lubeck and Hamburg, wishing to establish a communication by means of a railroad between Berlin and Hamburg, on the right bank of the Elbe, have appointed two plenipotentiaries to settle the matter, who have agreed as follows:

The road shall be laid out between Berlin and Bergsdorf in an uninterrupted direction, and as straight as possible, and as local circumstances and the claims of industry admit. Each of the contract-

ing governments shall remain free to determine the special direction of the railroad within its own territory; submitting themselves, however, to the principles above laid down.

LIVERPOOL, September 23. A fire broke out in this town at 3 o'clock in the morning, which proved to be the most destructive fire, by which the town has ever been visited; even more so than the great fire of 1802. It originated in Crompton-street, at the north end of the town, near the docks, and prevailed chiefly on that street, Foundry-street, and Neptune-street, between Great Howard street and Waterloo Road. A number of large warehouses and cotton sheds were destroyed, with a large quantity of cotton, and other merchandise. Among the buildings destroyed were Gray's four warehouses, Taylor's warehouse, Rayner's four warehouses, Maw's four, Rogers's partially burnt, Rayner's, Horsley's, and McKnight's sheds, a row of sixteen houses, and other buildings. The loss is estimated at £435,000, namely, 35,000 bales of cotton, £250,000, other goods, £150,000; buildings, £35,000. According to other estimates, the amount of cotton was computed to be larger, and the whole loss not less than half a million. The liabilities of the several insurance offices on the property destroyed were found to amount to £350,000. Several lives were lost, and among them that of Mr. Hodgson, a police officer, who was overwhelmed, while in the discharge of his duty, by the falling of a wall. The extent of the devastation was six or seven acres.

SOUTHAMPTON, (England,) September 24. The new steam-ship Hindostan left here to-day for her destination, which is to open the new line of steam communication between Calcutta, Madras, Ceylon, and Suez, in concert with the Oriental Company's vessels, running between this port and Alexandria. The circumstances connected with her departure excited a high degree of interest, and besides the friends of the numerous passengers, a large number of spectators assembled to witness the scene. The other vessels of the Company which were in the harbor, including the Great Liverpool, Royal Tar, Lady Mary Wood, and Braganza, were dressed out in their colors for the occasion, and presented a beautiful spectacle. The Hindostan was observed to be under way at 12 o'clock, which was the signal for a general salute from the Company's other vessels and the town bat-

tery, which was followed by the cheers of several thousand spectators. The Hindostan, returning the salute, soon glided rapidly down the water to seawards. Her first place of call will be Gibraltar, which it is calculated she will reach on Thursday, the 29th, receiving there some passengers and coals; she proceeds to the Cape de Verd islands, thence to the Cape of Good Hope, Mauritius, Ceylon, Madras, and Calcutta. From Calcutta she will start on her regular line for Suez, about 15th of January, (calling at Madras and Ceylon,) and is expected to arrive at Suez on the 10th of February. She takes out about 80 passengers hence, and, it is said, has about 20 more to take on board at Gibraltar and the Cape. It is calculated that she will not be more than 60 days under steam to Calcutta. The Hindostan is a specimen of the class of vessels which are to follow in her wake for the same service. The Bentick, a sister vessel, is to be launched at Liverpool in a few days. The Company anticipate that the intercourse with Calcutta, Madras, and Ceylon, will be made as regular as it is already between England and Malta and Alexandria.

The Hindostan was built by Messrs. Wilson, of Liverpool; she is of magnificent dimensions, and commensurate power. Her length of keel is 220 feet, length from taffrail to figure-head 250 feet, breadth of beam 39 feet, exclusive of paddle-boxes, depth 30 1-2 feet. Her engines, by Messrs. Fawcett & Co., are collectively of 550-horse power. She is divided by iron bulk-heads into five water tight compartments, a secure protection from foundering in case of leakage, however extensive. In addition to four large quarter-boats, and a stern-boat, the Hindostan is fitted with Captain Smith's safety paddle-box boats, in which, such is their size, the entire ship's company and passengers could be, in case of need, conveyed in perfect security. She is rigged as a three-masted schooner. She is considered a perfect model, and her speed and sea-going qualities were well attested in her late run from Kingstown to Southampton, which she performed in thirty-eight hours. The Hindostan possesses the advantage of a spar-deck, forming a splendid promenade for passengers, and affording shelter in bad weather to the main deck. The arrangement of the cabins is somewhat peculiar. Two spacious corridors extend along each side, of the main deck, that on the starboard, or gentlemen's side,

to the length of 170 feet. The cabins on the main deck are entered only from their corridors, and from them large and handsome companions lead to the spar-deck and to the other range of cabins. Passengers can thus, at all times and in all weathers, pass from the saloon and their cabins, in whatever part of the ship, with perfect comfort and facility, without coming near any of the crew. Another advantage of this arrangement is, that all annoyance from coal-dust, &c. is shut off from those parts of the ship appropriated to passengers. On the larboard side of the main deck is a range of commodious cabins, including a large drawing-room, set apart exclusively for ladies, who have also a separate staircase to the spar-deck. The sleeping-cabins, sixty in number, and which will accommodate, if required, 150 passengers, consist of single, double, and family cabins, and are perfect curiosities, for the ingenuity with which they are fitted. All that can be required by the passenger — bed, bedding, sofa, linen, washing apparatus, lamps, writing-table, &c., are all to be found within them. Hot, cold, and shower-baths, are amongst the luxuries provided on board. The saloon is decorated in a simple yet elegant manner. The panels are formed of slate, covered with highly-effective paintings, by first-rate artists, on subjects of appropriate character. The whole effect of the decorations of this apartment is that of the most delightful coolness and calmness. There is nothing gaudy or obtrusive. Below the lower range of cabins are the baggage-rooms, so conveniently placed that passengers can at any time visit their baggage. The cabins and all parts of the ship are perfectly light and ventilated, a constant current of air circulating throughout the decks, for which the hatch-ways, the corridors, and the spacious staircase from the spar-deck are the grand conductors. It would occupy more space than can be spared to describe the ranges of parcel-rooms, the purser's storerooms, the capacious water-tanks, the accommodations for the crew, the hold, &c. Suffice it to say, that the most minute attention to detail appears evident in every part of the ship.

MONTREAL, October 1. INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS IN CANADA. The following is a brief sketch of the system of public works which is now in progress, for facilitating communication between the great lakes and the Atlantic, through the waters of the St. Lawrence:

The line commences with the Lachine Canal, extending from Montreal to the village of Lachine, a distance of eight miles. This work is about to be enlarged, and it will form the first link of the chain which is to connect the navigation of the St. Lawrence with that of the great interior lakes, through which runs the boundary between the United States and the British dependencies, and to which, therefore, the people and the trade of both nations have access.

At Lachine you enter an expansion of the St. Lawrence, into an extensive lake called St. Louis, and have a steamboat navigation to the Cascades, at the mouth of the Ottawa. At this point, at the village of Beauharnois, commences the Beauharnois Canal, which was begun this year, and is to extend sixteen miles, to a point opposite Coteau du Lac, surmounting the obstacles to navigation caused by the several rapids, known as the Cascades, the Cedars, and the Coteau du Lac, which make, in all, a difference in elevation of about sixty feet. At this last point you enter another expansion of the St. Lawrence, called Lake St. Francis, which takes you to Cornwall, at a distance of forty miles, and on the 45th parallel of north latitude. At this point commences the Cornwall Canal, which is expected to be finished this season. It extends to Dickenson's Landing, eleven miles, and passes the Long Sault Rapids, which have a total descent of about fifty feet.

This canal is a fair sample of the other works: It has locks of solid masonry, constructed in the most durable manner, each two hundred feet long in the chamber, by fifty feet wide, with a depth of ten feet of water. They are designed, therefore, to accommodate the largest class of Lake Ontario steamers, and most of the ships that navigate the St. Lawrence from Quebec to Montreal. From Dickenson's Landing to Kingston, steamers of a large class now ply, though there are two or three rapids below Ogdensburgh. From Kingston the route is by the lake to the point of connection with the Welland Canal, between Lakes Erie and Ontario. This work, which is now being enlarged, is but a continuation and completion of this great line of works designed and destined to furnish a continuous ship navigation throughout the whole extent of the valley of the St. Lawrence and the basin of the great lakes, from Quebec to the Falls of St. Mary. When the chain

of communication is finished, and the great route of travel and traffic is opened and in use, it will give to the Canadas a direct communication of the most satisfactory description between the vast and far northwest and the Atlantic Ocean, to the great benefit of the trade and agriculture of the province.

ST. GEORGE'S, (Bermuda,) October 11. The Royal Mail Company's ship Medway, H. Smith, commander, arrived in 10 days from Nassau, N. P., bringing intelligence of the loss of the Royal Mail Company's steamer Iris, on the morning of Sunday the 9th, at a distance of 40 miles from the island. The Iris was on her way to England for repairs, having been injured on the rocks near Porto Rico, and the Medway was directed to keep company. On the 8th, the weather threatening a storm, the specie and freight on board of the Iris were removed to the Medway. The wind having increased to a gale during the night, the two vessels lost sight of each other. Towards morning the attention of those on board the Medway was attracted by frequent flashes, which proved to be from guns fired by the Iris. The Medway reached her, and took from her the officers and crew, with the exception of a boy, who, having overloaded himself with clothes, fell overboard, and was drowned. It was found impossible to keep the Iris afloat, and soon after the men were taken off she went down.

DOMESTIC.

NEW YORK, September 1. A public dinner was given to Lord Ashburton, the British special minister, by whom the late treaty was negotiated. Peter A. Jay, Esq., son of the eminent statesman who signed the three first treaties with Great Britain, and who was the negotiator of the first commercial treaty, presided at the dinner. The President of the U. States and the Secretary of State were invited, but were not present. There were about 160 persons present. The price of tickets to the subscribers was \$10.

The French steam frigate at New York raised her anchors, and proceeded down the bay, bound to Norfolk.

NEW YORK, September 3. Lord Ashburton and suite embarked on board the Warspite, British frigate, Lord John Hay, and sailed for England. The frigate came to anchor below, and did not sail from the Hook until the morning of the 5th.

NEW YORK, October 14. THE CROTON WATER-WORKS. The citizens of New York celebrated the opening of the water-works for the supply of the city, by means of an aqueduct from Croton River. A procession was formed at an early hour, in which all classes of citizens joined. They were regularly marshalled in sections, according to their occupations or the associations to which they belonged. The procession began to move at 10 o'clock, and passed through the principal streets, ending at the Park. The procession was estimated to contain over 20,000 persons. It was five miles long, and two and a half hours were occupied by it in passing by a given point. The different sections and associations bore appropriate banners and emblems. After the procession, Samuel Stevens, Esq., President of the Board of Water Commissioners, from a platform in the Park made an address to the Mayor and Common Council, and an assembly of citizens. The fountain in the Park played through the day, throwing up a column of water six or eight inches in diameter, to a height of 40 or 50 feet. Among the spectacles in honor of the occasion was a balloon ascension by Mr. Lauriat, and in the evening there were fireworks at Castle Garden, and an illumination of Astor House and other buildings in the vicinity. Mr. Stevens, in his address gave a description of the water-works, to the following effect: They consist, first of an artificial reservoir, called the Croton River Lake, 45 miles from the Battery, the extreme part of the city. This lake is formed by a dam of hydraulic stone masonry, with two waste-weirs or aprons, for the over-fall of the water, one of 87 feet and one of 150 feet, these being separated by a gate-house. The height of these waste-weirs is 55 feet above the bed of the river, and 40 feet above the low water level. The dam throws the water back 5 miles, and makes a lake of an area of 400 acres, and of a capacity equal to 500 millions of gallons. The water enters a gate-house, where the quantity is regulated before it enters the aqueduct, which is a stone structure lined and arched with brick. The face of the interior of the aqueduct is at the bottom an inverted arch, width 6 feet 9 inches, height 8 feet 5 1-2 inches, area 53 34-100 square feet, about large enough for an omnibus and four to pass through. The line of the aqueduct being on a declivity of 13 1-4 inches to the mile down to the Harlem River, a distance

of 33 miles. It has an extent of tunnelling of 6,841 feet, being sixteen tunnels in number, sometimes through earth and sometimes through solid rock. The deepest cut is 80 feet, and the least 25 feet. In Westchester only, the aqueduct crosses 25 streams of water, which are from 25 to 63 feet below the top of the aqueduct.

The grade line of aqueduct across the Harlem River is 25 feet above tide-water, and the top of the water now passes over Harlem River in one pipe of 36 inches, placed on the earthen dam made in the construction of the high bridge. This bridge is the only part of the works which remains unfinished, being now but about a third part completed. It will be, when finished, one of the most stupendous works of the kind in the world. The river is 620 feet wide at the water line, but the slope of the river banks adds an additional distance of 830 feet; in all, 1,450 feet. The plan now in progress crosses the river with 8 arches of 50 feet span, and 31 piers of 31 by 44 feet at the base, resting on the bed of the river, and 7 arches on piers on the land from the edge of the water along the two banks of the river. The spring of one of the arches is 95 feet above the lowest foundation put down; the top of the parapet will be 149 feet from the lowest foundation. It is intended that the water shall pass over this bridge in pipes to have it secure against the possibility of danger.

The works at Clendenning Valley are deserving of notice. They consist of a bridge over a valley of 1,900 feet in breadth, the greatest height of the aqueduct being 50 feet from the bottom of the valley. Beautiful archways are constructed for three streets, 34 feet for the carriage-way, and 10 on each side for side-walks. Next in interest is the reservoir at Eighty-sixth street, which might well be called the detaining or clarifying reservoir. It has two divisions, together covering 32 acres, the greatest depth of water being 25 feet, and containing one hundred and fifty millions of gallons. Two lines of 36-inch pipes connect this with the reservoir at Fortieth-street, which has also two divisions, forming together an area of four acres; depth of water when filled, 36 feet. From this point to the Battery is a distance of 4 1-2 miles. There are in this great work 55,000,000 of bricks and 700,000 cubic yards of stone masonry.

The water in the aqueduct is regulat-

ed at the entrance gate so as not to flow under any pressure; it has not been permitted to flow in the division near the city at a greater depth than two feet, but the works at the Croton dam required a few days since that more water should pass through the first division, (the distance between Sing Sing and the Croton River,) being 8 miles, and it was found to pass 75,000,000 of New York gallons in 24 hours, and that its velocity was over two miles per hour. The Croton Lake now retains, beyond the daily river supply, in reserve, 500,000,000 of gallons; and a small expense would add other immense artificial lakes to hold back an additional supply, but the necessity of this is hardly conceivable. It is estimated that the London supply, from all their companies, is but 24,000,000 of gallons, and Paris 4,000,000 only.

The quality of the water is of a pure and transparent character, and it has been found already to be a palatable beverage to thousands of individuals who have used it. Well might the city celebrate the accomplishment of so splendid a work, and one so important to its security, as well as to the health and comfort of its inhabitants. It is, we presume, the greatest work of the kind of modern times. The following is a statement of the cost of this work:

Amount paid the Water Commissioners,	\$7,728,274 88
Water Pipes and Laying,	1,651,647 47
Water Loan and interest,	1,560,873 06
Other expenses,	9,750 84
Specie to pay interest,	2,831 18

\$10,973,377, 43

To meet this there have been the following stocks issued, viz.:

Five per cent.	\$8,771,500 00
Six per cent.	645,312 00
Seven per cent.	2,000,000 00

\$11,416,812 00

SEPTEMBER 7. The New York Legislature adjourned, after an extra session of three weeks, having passed a bill to divide the State into 34 districts, for the choice of members of Congress.

KENNEBUNK, (New York,) September 15. A serious disaster this day befel this village, by which a number of persons lost their lives. The drawbridge over the river at this place, which was crowded by an unusual number of persons, in consequence of a military parade in the vi-

cinity, suddenly gave way, and precipitated a number of persons, supposed to be about twenty, into the river. The water was deep and the current rapid, and all who fell in, with one exception, were drowned.

MAINE, Sept. 12. The election in the State of Maine took place. Governor Fairfield was reelected by a large majority, with large Democratic majorities of members in both branches of the Legislature.

TRENTON, October 28. The legislature of New Jersey assembled on Tuesday, and organized by the choice of Whig officers in both branches. This day the legislature proceeded to the choice of Governor and other officers. In joint ballot of the two Houses, Governor Pennington was reelected Governor by 42 votes, in opposition to Stacy G. Potts, who had 33. The Hon. William L. Dayton was chosen Senator in Congress by 43 votes, against G. D. Wall, who had 33. Mr. Dayton was chosen both for the next term of six years, and for the unexpired portion of Mr. Southard's term.

PORTLAND, October 13. A fire broke out last night in Congress street, and several valuable dwelling houses and other buildings in that, Free, and Brown streets were destroyed. Among the houses burnt were the Franklin House, occupied by Stone and Pray, the houses of Mr. Willis, of the family of Jacob Knight, the houses of Benjamin Richardson, Thomas Chace and J. Libby, and Jos. Thaxter and Albert Baker. The house of Charles S. Davis was partially destroyed.

BOSTON, September 2. The steam-packet Caledonia arrived at half past 5 o'clock, A. M., in a passage of 13 1-2 days from Liverpool. She brought accounts of serious disturbances in the manufacturing towns of England; of the prorogation of Parliament, Aug. 12; of the resignation of Lord Hill as commander-in-chief of the army, and the appointment of the Duke of Wellington. She brought news of the arrival of the Acadia at Liverpool, in a passage of 11 days 19 hours from Boston.

BOSTON, September 7. The Massachusetts Legislature met in extra session, and Governor Davis communicated to them by message. The object of the session was to pass a law for forming the Congressional districts. The committee appointed to sit in the recess reported a bill for this object.

The same day a Democratic State Convention for the nomination of Governor and Lieutenant-Governor was held at Faneuil Hall, in Boston. Marcus Morton was nominated as candidate for Governor, and Henry H. Childs for Lieutenant-Governor.

Boston, September 14. A Whig State Convention was held at Faneuil Hall, of which Hon. Abbott Lawrence was chosen President. The convention nominated John Davis and George Hull to be candidates for reelection as Governor and Lieutenant-Governor, and also nominated Henry Clay and John Davis to be candidates for President and Vice-President at the next election.

Boston, September 16. The Massachusetts Legislature adjourned, after a session of 10 days, having passed a law to divide the State into 10 Congressional districts.

Boston, September 18. The steam-packet Acadia arrived at 2 o'clock, in 14 days from Liverpool. She brought news of the arrival of the overland mail from India,—of the departure of the Queen for Scotland,—and of the passage of the French regency bill.

Boston, October 3. MASSACHUSETTS BANK DIVIDENDS. The following Semi-Annual Dividends will be paid at the Banks in this city to day:

Banks.	Capital.	Dividend.	Am't.
	\$		\$
Atlas,	500,000	2 1-2 per cent.	12,500
Atlantic,	500,000	3 " "	15,000
Boston,	600,000	3 1-2 " "	21,000
City,	1,000,000	2 " "	20,000
Columbian,	500,000	3 " "	15,000
Eagle,	500,000	none.	
Freeman's	150,000	3 1-2 " "	5,200
Globe,	1,000,000	3 " "	30,000
Granite,	500,000	2 1-2 " "	10,000
Hamilton,	500,000	3 " "	15,000
Massachusetts,	800,000	2 4-5 or 37 pr sh	22,400
Market,	560,000	3 " "	16,800
Mechanics',	150,000	2 " "	3,000
Merchants',	2,000,000	3 1-2 " "	70,000
New England,	1,000,000	3 " "	30,000
North,	750,000	2 " "	15,000
Shoe and Leather Dealers',	500,000	3 1-2 " "	17,500
Shawmut,	500,000	3 " "	15,000
State,	1,600,000	3 1-3 " "	60,000
Suffolk,	1,000,000	4 " "	40,000

South,	500,000	none.
Tremont,	500,000	none.
Traders',	500,000	none.
Union,	800,000	3 1-2 per cent. 24,000
Washington,	500,000	2 3-4 " " 13,750

\$17,610,000 \$471,150

Boston, October 5. DEATH OF DR. CHANNING. On Sunday evening last, Rev. William E. Channing of this city died at Bennington, in Vermont. After a visit to the county of Berkshire, he extended his excursion for recreation and health into Vermont, where he was arrested by illness, which proved to be typhus fever, under which he gradually sunk, and expired on the date abovementioned. He was accompanied by members of his family, by whom his remains were brought to Boston for interment. His funeral was celebrated on the following Thursday, at the church in Federal street, where he had ministered for many years, on which occasion a large concourse of the people of his recent charge and others, embracing the most distinguished citizens of Boston and the vicinity, assembled to testify their respect and affection. In addition to the other funeral services, an impressive and interesting discourse was delivered by the Rev. Mr. Gannett. Dr. Channing had been long distinguished as a preacher and writer, and his works have been extensively read, and admired, not only in this country, but abroad. Several public discourses have been delivered upon the character and worth of this christian teacher and philanthropist, and not only these, but some more ample memorial of him and of his works will doubtless be published. Although Dr. Channing had been for many years in feeble health, and for that reason had withdrawn from the field of his parochial duties, he continued to labor for the public, by occasional discourses and publications, to very near the end of his life. They uniformly commanded deep attention.

Boston, October 18. The steam-packet Britannia arrived at 6 o'clock, A. M. in 13 1-2 days from Liverpool, with 52 passengers. She brought news of the arrival in England of the steamer Caledonia in 14 1-2 days from Boston. Lord Ashburton, in the frigate Warspite, arrived at Portsmouth on the 23d, in 17 days from New York.

[Several articles of Chronology are necessarily deferred to the next Number.]

THE MONTHLY CHRONICLE.

NOVEMBER, 1842.

ARTICLE XV.

FRENCH AND AMERICAN COMMERCE.

THE foreign commerce of France has within the last ten years sustained a very remarkable, and almost a regular annual increase. The aggregate of imports and exports has, within that period, been nearly doubled. An important part of this increase is in the trade with the United States, which for several years past, with one or two exceptions, has held the first rank in the tables of French commerce, in the amount both of its exports and imports. In 1840, Great Britain received a greater amount than any country of French products; but in the five preceding years, the United States stood first in amount, by an average of near 60,000,000 of francs, according to the tables of the French custom house. In the amount of imports into France, those from the United States, in 1840, were higher than from any other country, by more than 60,000,000 of francs, and higher than from Great Britain for the five preceding years, by an average of more than 20,000,000. Sardinia, in some of the preceding years, was a competitor with the United States in the amount of products exported to France, but far behind it in the amount of receipts.

We have lately examined a general table of the commerce of France with foreign nations, during the year 1840, forming a large folio volume, in which all the movements of the commerce of the year are exhibited, in its minute details. It is preceded by an analytical summary, and comparison of the commerce of the five preceding years. This analysis has suggested a comparison of the results given in this table, with those which are presented in the annual statements of the commerce of the United States, made by the Treasury Department, and printed by order of Con-

gress. This comparison presents some curious results, which are deserving of attention.

We will first call the attention of the reader to a comparison of the aggregate value of imports into France from the United States, and the exports from France to the United States, during a period of six years, ending in 1840, as they are exhibited in the French and the American valuations respectively. In making this comparison, a slight embarrassment is encountered from the circumstance, that while the French reports are made for successive calendar years, those of the United States are made for annual periods, ending on the 30th of September. This difference defeats, in a great measure, the objects of the comparison when a single year is regarded; but when several successive years are embraced in the comparison, the variance is not material. In giving amounts from the French table, we reduce francs to dollars, at the rate of 19 cents to the franc.

Value of Imports into France from the United States, in six successive Years.

By the French official Valuation.

1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
\$17,005,000	\$21,052,000	\$22,352,000	\$25,182,000	\$19,548,000	\$33,402,000

By the United States official Valuation.

\$19,751,244	\$20,939,000	\$19,690,578	\$15,783,516	\$18,230,949	\$21,534,583
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The average of the six years, according to the French valuation, is \$22,976,833, and of the American valuation, \$19,371,349: the former exceeding the latter by \$3,605,484, or 18 1-2 per cent.

In the exports from France to the United States, the difference is much greater, namely:

French Valuation.

1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
\$37,440,000	\$45,391,000	\$18,734,000	\$32,433,000	\$38,874,000	\$25,849,000

United States Valuation.

1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
\$32,915,276	\$36,615,417	\$22,083,614	\$18,771,797	\$32,531,321	\$17,572,576

Average of French valuation, \$33,121,833; of United States valuation, \$24,915,050; excess of the former, \$8,206,783, or 33 per cent.

The striking differences between the several annual amounts, are doubtless occasioned in part by the difference in the period of the year at which the several statements terminate, the three last months of each year in the American statement being embraced with the three first months of the next succeeding year. The average difference in the exports is doubtless chiefly owing to the difference in the official estimate of cost, and not to any material

difference of quantity. In 1840, for example, the quantity of cotton reported in the French statement as imported from the United States, is 79,000,968 kilograms, or 173,602,129 lbs. The quantity reported by the American statement, as exported in that year from the United States to France, is 179,090,021 lbs. The difference between the two quantities is no greater than may be easily accounted for, by the different periods at which the two statements terminate the year. The valuation of this cotton in the French statement is 142,201,742 francs, or \$27,018,330; and in the American statement \$15,725,686, or a difference of \$11,292,644 in value, that statement which presents the smallest quantity exhibiting the largest value. So great a discrepancy may justly shake the confidence which one would wish to repose in these official statements.

The following table exhibits the amount and value of the principal articles of export from the United States to France in the year ending September 30, 1840, as given in the statement of the Secretary of the Treasury, compared with the amount and value of the same descriptions of articles imported into France in the year ending December 31, 1840, as given in the French official table :

		<i>Exports to France.</i> By U. S. statement.		<i>Imports into France.</i> By the French table.	
Cotton,	lbs.	179,090,021	\$15,725,686	lbs 173,602,129	\$27,018,330
Tobacco,	hhds.	15,640	1,634,976	" 17,887,960	3,553,197
Rice,	tes.	13,602	292,271	" 8,836,713	316,654
Flour,	bbls.	73,925	401,780	bbls. 67,566	400,390
Coffee,	lbs.	2,636,710	280,462	lbs. 3,213,048	285,125
Whalebone,	lbs.	870,659	175,431	" 708,400	220,780
Pot and Pearl Ashes,	lbs.	3,171,840	141,513	" 3,075,879	159,000
Hides, dom. and foreign,			121,999	" 1,678,877	181,070
Indigo,	lbs.	46,186	63,621	" 41,712	57,546
Dyewoods,	lbs.	8,791,142	151,846		106,412
Gold and Silver Coin,			2,194,603		
All other articles,			650,394		1,159,066
Total,			\$21,834,803		\$33,407,572

It will be seen from the above statement, that the valuation given to cotton, tobacco, and other articles of American produce, is given much higher in the French official table than it is in the American statement of exports. This difference must arise, of course, from the French statement being founded on the home value, including the cost of importation, and not on the foreign cost, as is the practice in our treasury statements. This difference of practice, which probably applies to all imports into France, makes a very sensible difference in the nominal comparative amount of the commerce of the two countries. The difference, as

shown by the above comparison, is nearly in the proportion of two to three. When, therefore, it is stated that the aggregate value of imports into France from foreign ports, in the year 1840, was 1,052,300,000 francs, or \$199,937,000, it should be considered that if these imports were valued, as in the American statement, on the basis of their cost in the foreign market, the amount would be less by a third, and about equal to the aggregate exports from the United States in the same year.

Of the above amount of export from the United States to France, \$2,758,344, or about an eighth part, according to the American statement, were shipped in French vessels, and the remaining seven eighths, amounting to \$19,076,559, in American vessels. The number of American vessels, according to the Treasury statement, which cleared from American ports for France, in the year ending September 30, 1840, was 374; their tonnage, 153,128; crews, 5,759. Foreign vessels which cleared for the same ports, 87; tonnage 24,449, crews 1,228. According to the French tables, the number of vessels which entered the French ports, from those of the United States, in 1840, was 464; their tonnage, 177,450; the number of seamen, 7,124. Of these, 375 were United States vessels, of 151,766 tons, with 5,833 seamen; French vessels, 87; tonnage 25,251, seamen 1,263. Foreign to both countries, 2, of 433 tons and 28 men.

In regard to the exports from France to the U. States, the two reports admit of a less exact comparison. As the American report begins with the 1st of October, and ends with the 30th of September, the merchandise embraced in it must have mostly left the ports of France from the 15th of August, 1839, to August 15, 1840, while the French report embraces the shipments made from January 1 to December 31, of the latter year. The variance on this account is the greater, from the fact that the closing part of the year 1840 was a period of more active importation, in the United States, than the same period of the preceding year. A greater discrepancy is, therefore, to be expected between the two reports, in the comparison of the exports from France, than of the imports.

The following table shows the amount and value of the several articles named, exported from France to the United States, in the year ending December 31, 1840, according to the official valuation, and also the amount and value of the same articles, imported into the United States from France in the year ending September 30, 1840, according to the statement of the Secretary of the Treasury :

		<i>Amount and value by the French valuation.</i>		<i>Amount and value by the American valuation.</i>	
Silk Goods,	lbs.	1,342,767	\$13,336,936		\$7,859,871
Woollen Goods,	lbs.	1,293,984	2,467,234		1,178,182
Cotton Goods,	lbs.	892,927	2,062,488		947,243
Muslins, Lawns, and Laces,			858,667		278,548
Wines,	galls.	2,919,998	800,299	gs. 2,978,887	1,025,510
Brandy,	galls.	984,561	639,264	" 1,300,820	899,893
Gold and Silver,					1,120,249
Other articles,			5,697,868		4,263,374
Total,			\$25,802,756		\$17,572,876

From this statement it will be seen, that the valuation of each class of articles, as well as the aggregate value of exports, was much greater by the French tables, than by the statement of our Treasury Department, with the exception of wines and brandy, of which the quantity was less, doubtless in consequence of the want of coincidence in the commencement and termination of the year. It will be observed, in recurring to the statement of the aggregate exports for six successive years, that this excess of the French valuation is not accidental, or confined to this particular year, but that there is a difference of similar amount in every year. So great a difference it is not easy to account for. If the goods imported to this country were subject to heavy ad valorem duties, or to heavy duties of any kind, it might be conjectured that the imports had been fraudulently undervalued, and had been entered by false invoices. But when it is considered, that during a period of nearly ten years, the silk goods, which form the largest item, were entirely free from duty, this reason for the difference fails, especially in reference to this article.

A somewhat greater proportion of the imports to this country, according to the Treasury statement, were shipped in American vessels, than of the exports, namely, \$15,548,778 to \$2,024,101, imported in foreign vessels.

The French tables class the articles of import under the three heads; — of articles necessary for industry, natural objects of consumption, and manufactured objects of consumption; and the articles of export, under the two heads; — of natural products, and manufactured objects. The exports from the United States to France come almost exclusively under the head of natural products, and those from France to the United States under that of manufactured objects. The marked difference, in the class and character of the articles exported from each country, accounts sufficiently for the extent of this commerce, which is founded on the surplus in each, of the productions most wanted by the other.

This commerce, so necessary to France for the supply of the natural productions of the soil, both for the materials of industry,

and for the subsistence of the inhabitants, and so advantageous to the United States, by exchanging its surplus products for the fruits of industry and skill, in a country where labor is exerted for a comparatively small reward, has doubled within the last ten years. In some recent years, it has been much more than double its amount ten years ago. The increase for the last few years has not been so striking in the valuation, as in the quantity of the products exchanged, for the increase of production has greatly diminished their price. In 1831, the quantity of cotton exported from the United States to France was 46,128,357 pounds, valued at \$4,264,839; tobacco, 1,673 hogsheads, at \$151,080; rice, 10,827 tierces, at \$194,915. In 1836, the amount and valuation of these exports to France were, cotton 100,496,994 pounds, at \$16,460,415; tobacco, 6,312 hogsheads, at \$864,351; rice, 10,921 tierces, at \$221,901. In 1841, the amount of exports of these articles to that country was, cotton, 139,394,895 pounds, at \$14,346,630; tobacco, 17,586 hogsheads, at \$1,712,121; rice, 12,130 tierces, at \$260,729.

In 1832, the imports from France amounted in value to \$12,175,658, and in 1841 to \$23,933,812. The silk goods imported in the former year amounted to \$3,232,758, and in the latter to \$11,208,108. The increase, however, has been far from regular, the amount in 1836 having been much larger than in any succeeding year. The increase must, doubtless, be attributed in part to the repeal of duties on silks, and some other articles, which took effect in March, 1833, and to the reduction of duties on wines. But other causes have contributed, probably, more largely to this increase. The increased amount of exports, and the growing habits of extravagance in living, which have increased rapidly with every increase of activity in business, have led to the increased consumption of silk goods, more than the reduction in price. In several years the imports have been excessive, and far exceeded the consumption. The greatest amount was in 1836, when the whole import from France was \$36,615,000, and the silk goods, including veils and shawls and silk and worsted goods, amounted to \$17,940,000. The value of wines imported in that year was \$1,708,000. In no subsequent year have the imports nearly equalled these amounts, and whenever they have approached them, it has been evident that they were far beyond the consumption. It remains to be seen what will be the effect of the restoration of duties on the 1st of September last. It will be likely to check the excessive imports in particular years; but it is to be doubted whether it will greatly diminish the consumption.

M I S C E L L A N Y .

BRITISH SETTLEMENTS ON THE WESTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

In November, 1840, Dr. Madden, who was formerly a stipendiary magistrate in the West Indies, and subsequently connected with the Mixed Commission at Havanna, received from Lord John Russell instructions to proceed as commissioner to investigate various matters connected with the administration and condition of the British settlements on the West Coast of Africa. His inquiry was to be opened on the Gold Coast. Thence he was to proceed to Sierra Leone and the settlements on the river Gambia, with the view of ascertaining their various advantages and disadvantages. Dr. Madden was instructed by the Colonial Secretary to direct his particular attention to the slave trade, as representations had been made to government by Mr. Maclean, that facilities had been afforded to the slave traders by the magistrates and members of the Council at Cape Coast Castle. He was also to investigate the subject of mortality, and to ascertain whether the destruction of human life which occurred to Europeans in that portion of the world was to be attributed to the general nature of the coast, the peculiar situation of the settlements, or the want of care in respect to sewerage, ventilation, or medical precaution. He was directed to make inquiry as to the prospects of emigration from Sierra Leone to the British West India colonies, and to ascertain whether there were any considerable class of persons disposed to emigrate to these colonies. With these instructions, Dr. Madden sailed to the western coast of Africa. Having previously published in our columns copious extracts from the report of the Select Committee on the Western Coast of Africa, it is now our purpose to lay before the public an abstract of the appendix to that report. The appendix contains many points of extreme interest. In 1827, owing to the heavy expense incurred by Sir Charles M'Carthy in his disastrous war with the Ashantees, the English Government withdrew all the public establishments from the coast, and gave up the forts to the merchants, to be held by them as factories. It was then determined that the forts should be delivered over to the merchants on the following conditions, namely, that the two principal forts of Cape Coast Castle and Accra should remain dependencies of Sierra Leone, that British law should continue in force there, and that the affairs of the forts should be chiefly managed by a committee of merchants of London, appointed by the Government. Five of the merchants were to be formed into a council of magistrates for the purpose of regulating the internal affairs of the forts, &c. The sum of 4,000*l.* per annum was to be granted to the London com-

mittee, to prepare the buildings and garrison the forts. The forts formerly occupied by the African committee were the following: Apponia, Succondee, Commerda, Coromantyn, Tantumquarry, Winebah, and Whydah.

The forts that are now kept up are, Cape Coast Castle, James Fort, Accra, Anamaboe, and Dixcove. Cape Coast Castle is the largest of these forts. The anomalous system of government pursued, and the total absence of a judicial establishment at Cape Coast Castle, are much complained of. The government of this settlement is administered by a President of the Council, a military commandant, and a surgeon. The following are their respective salaries:

President of the Council,	£620
Secretary,	300
Commandant of troops,	200
Surgeon,	200

The troops at Cape Coast Castle are commanded by an European. The native population of Cape Coast Castle is 5,000; European merchants, 12; missionaries, 6; and other white residents, 12 or more. The Europeans occupy about 18 stone houses, valued at 1,000*l.* to 2,000*l.* sterling each. The natives live in "swish" houses made of mud, which becomes hard and durable, and they last as long as the roof resists the rain. The authorities of the Castle exercise power over the whole of the country, from Dixcove to Accra, an extent of 120 miles. Civilization is said to be confined within the limits of the Castle. The whole country about Cape Coast Castle is one great wilderness of verdure. It is only about 15 or 20 miles from the sea-side where civilization is carried on to any extent. From this distance the plantains, yams, cassava, and corn are carried on the heads of the women to market, with their infants slung across their backs. The men treat the women in the most revolting manner, making them do all the drudgery of labor. The consequences of this brutal treatment are, the women suffer from premature exhaustion, decrepitude, and decay. The soil is poor on the sea-side, but four miles inland it is fit for any kind of tropical produce. Mr. Swansey made an attempt to introduce the growth of cotton and coffee, and spent much time and money in the experiment. At his death the cultivation of cotton was neglected. The cotton-trees are now growing wild, and the cultivation is entirely given up. The coffee grown on the western coast of Africa is said to be nearly approaching in quality to that of Mocha, but the heavy duty, 1*s.* 3*d.* per pound, imposed on its importation into England, amounts to an absolute prohibition of its growth. The trade of Cape Coast has considerably increased of late years.

The following tabular statement of the exports and imports for the year 1839, will give some idea of the relative commercial advantages of the different settlements at Cape Coast, Sierra Leone, and Gambia:

	Exports from	Imports into
Cape Coast,	£194,576	£354,460
Sierra Leone,	56,440	103,066
Gambia,	162,769	153,903
	<hr/> 415,805	<hr/> 611,449

Anamaboe appears to be better adapted for trade with Ashantee than Cape Coast. It is situated about 11 miles from the former place. It is stated, that in a few years Anamaboe will have the greater part of the trade with Cape Coast. The population of the town is 4,100. The fort is built on land purchased from the Fantee nation. The mortality among the garrison has been for the last five years 1 in 17. In 1840 the imports amounted to 50,000*l.*; the exports to 60,000*l.* The trade is principally carried on in London and Bristol ships. The climate is the same as at Cape Coast. The rains set in in the month of May, and continue for four months, which months are the most sickly in the year.

Accra is 75 miles to the eastward of Cape Coast. A considerable trade is carried on in this port. The palm oil trade is considerably on the increase. The commandant of the fort, who administers the government, has 100*l.* a year. The native population is 4,000. The only place of worship is one connected with the Wesleyan missionaries.

Thirty-four British and forty-one foreign vessels visited British Accra last year. The soil on the coast is light and sandy, but a few miles inland it is excellent, though there is little cultivation, except of vegetables. The Danes have established a coffee plantation, which is said to produce excellent coffee.

The only difficulty in finding laborers or any species of prædial employment is the ordinary rate of wages, which is only 5*s.* currency a month, and which is a very inadequate remuneration for a man's labor. The gold dust which is brought down from the interior is obtained from the alluvial sands and soil, and is washed down from the mountains composed of granite, gneiss, and quartz. At Cape Coast even the sweepings of the streets are impregnated with gold. These are gathered up and subjected to repeated washings, and the average sum that a whole day's labor at this employment will bring a woman will not exceed 2*d.* or 3*d.* a day. Accra is divided into British, Dutch, and Danish Accra; the Dutch fort and settlement are of less importance than the Danish; the fort of the latter, called Christiansburg, is on a large scale. It has about 80 or 90 guns mounted.

Dixcove. This district extends for 40 miles along the sea-coast, and about 30 miles into the interior. The imports and exports are said to be about 20,000*l.* or 30,000*l.* Last year 40 British vessels anchored in the roadstead.

Elmina is the largest and most important of the Dutch forts and settlements on the Gold Coast, and is situated nine miles to the westward of Cape Coast. The town is considerable, and the trade with Ashantee is of some importance. In this portion of the appendix will be found the various suggestions made by the select committee with the view of altering the present system of government on the Gold Coast.

Slavery on the Gold Coast prevails to a great extent among the natives. Those slaves which are chiefly for domestic service, and not for prædial labor, are treated with mildness, and are consequently comparatively happy. The Fantees make no wars now to obtain their slaves; those which they hold are either born in bondage, or are what are called "slaves of the house," and are more leniently treated than others; or

are purchased in the neighboring countries, where the slave-trade is still carried on; or they are taken in "pawn" either for the debts of others or themselves; and, not being able to pay these debts, they lapse into slavery.

The palm-oil trade is carried on to a considerable extent in the river Bonny. The average import of this oil into the port of Liverpool for some years past has been about 12,000 tons a year, value about 400,000*l*. Three-fourths of this oil are exported from the Bonny and the other outlets of the Niger, and it gives employment to 12 or 15,000 tons of shipping per annum. The price of palm oil, duty paid, varies from 33*l*. to 34*l*. per tun.

The people of Bonny, who have managed to get this trade into their hands, are one of the most barbarous, dishonest, and treacherous races in this part of Africa. Our extensive commercial relations with them for nearly 30 years have not produced any change in their savage customs and superstitions. By all accounts, even by the admissions of the masters of the merchant vessels in this trade, they have not undergone the least improvement.

"The following account of one of their horrid practices was given me, (says the Doctor,) by one of those captains who was himself cognizant of the circumstances he described, in a case of human sacrifice, which occurred in the year 1840: My informant and the other masters of English vessels then at anchor in the Bonny, when they went ashore were frequently in the habit of seeing a little negro girl, about 10 years of age, who had been brought down from the upper country, and placed under the charge of one of the natives at Bonny, previously to being sacrificed by the jujumen or priests of that place. The masters of the British vessels frequently saw the child, and were not ignorant of the intended sacrifice of it. This kind of sacrifice, it seems, is made once in each king's reign. The child must be without spot or blemish. If there is the slightest eruption on the skin, or the smallest scratch, the child is held unfit for sacrifice. Consequently, the person placed in charge of the child is extremely careful to preserve it from hurt or injury, and in the present case seemed in the greatest alarm at all times, lest any accident should happen to it. The little girl was suffered to go about, to do whatever she liked, and no one dared to punish or to contradict her. On the appointed day she was placed on a stage of planks placed across a canoe, and taken by some of the Bonny people over the bar of the river. The men in the canoe kept telling her they were going to send her to see her father and mother; and while engaging her attention in this manner, they slipped the stage on which the poor child was sitting into the sea, and, consigning her to the fetish, they left her to go down. The people in the canoe then pulled ashore as fast as possible; and at the very time this atrocity was suffered to be committed, a tremendous tornado set in, and the Dalhousie Castle, a British vessel loading in the river, was totally wrecked on the bar.

"This event, coupled with the murder that preceded it, made a great sensation at the time. The Bonny men could not bear to speak of it or to be spoken to of it; and the only reason given for this sacrifice was,

that it was 'to do good to Bonny men.' I inquired why those who had seen the child so frequently had not interfered with the King to prevent such an act? If they had been defrauded of a few dollars worth of rum or tobacco, would they not immediately have remonstrated with King Poppel? But this was not a matter of trade, and there was no Englishman there to meddle with it. Surely if there had been any British agent in this place he would not have suffered this act to be committed without remonstrating against its barbarity. But it is not the interests of humanity alone that would seem to require the protection of some consular agent of ours in this place; the interests of our trade demand it likewise. The manner in which the trade is carried on in the Bonny, and in which the natives and the crews of these ships are occasionally treated by the masters, calls for immediate attention.

"The commanding naval officer on this station has been frequently obliged to visit the Bonny, and take cognizance of cases of violence and injustice on the part of these persons, either against the natives or their own people."

Gambia. In 1618 a company was formed in England with the view of establishing a trade on the river Gambia. The countries in Upper Gambia were said to be rich in gold, and even as far back as 1618 Timbuctoo was considered the El Dorado of this part of the world. The government of Gambia is now administered by a Lieut. Governor, appointed by the crown. The colony is a dependency of Sierra Leone, and has no council or legislative body. The total imports of this settlement from 1836 to 1840 amounted to an average of £115,892; and the exports to £140,583.

The expenditure for the government, military protection, and for the maintenance of liberated Africans of the Gambia, in the year 1839, amounted to 18,588*l.* 12*s.* 3 1-2*d.* Of this amount the colony defrayed the sum of 6,002*l.* 9*s.* 10 1-2*d.*

The expenditure of the military establishment included in the first amount was 8,481*l.* 18*s.* 5 1-2*d.*; and the expenditure for the liberated African department, included also in it, amounted to 2,238*l.* 0*s.* 2 3-4*d.*

The maintenance of the settlement and its establishments, then, deducting the amount defrayed by the colony, costs Great Britain the sum of 12,586*l.* 2*s.* 5*d.* a year.

The amount of revenue collected in the colony from 1816 to 1826, averaged about 2,000*l.* It amounted, in 1839, in fixed revenue, to 7,809*l.* 12*s.*, and incidental revenues to 94*l.* 4*s.* 1*d.* Total, 7,903*l.* 16*s.* 1*d.*

Bissaos is the great stronghold of the Portuguese slave-trade. The island of Bulama is situated 30 miles to the southward of Bissaos, at the entrance of the Rio Grande. It is claimed both by the British and Portuguese. The Nunez lies about 300 miles to the southward of the Gambia. A great deal of legal and illegal trade is carried on in this river.

Sierra Leone. The general aspect of the country in the immediate vicinity of this colony, and the external appearance of Freetown, convey to the mind of a stranger an idea of salubrity. The buildings are large,

the streets wide and regular; the roads are excellent, and the markets are abundantly supplied. The streets of Freetown, Dr. Madden remarks, resemble those of Washington.

Between each row of houses there are large intervals of unoccupied space, or of the sites of former houses now encumbered with ruins. And the wide intermediate space between the sides of the streets, which seem laid out for the crowded thoroughfares of some mighty city, presents no appearance of life or business; the grass grows in the centre and flourishes there, even in the principal streets; its verdure is, however, by no means refreshing to the sight of the European passenger, for no wilderness can appear more dreary than the deserted streets of an inhabited town, where silence reigns, and over which sickness or some impending calamity seems to hang.

The stores of the European merchants have no aspect of business. The only stir and bustle of a thriving trade that seems to exist is in those where rum of the most pernicious quality is sold to the negroes; and in the stalls of the latter, where guns and gunpowder, tobacco, spirits, hardware, coarse cloths, and handkerchiefs are retailed to their countrymen, and to the natives from the adjoining countries.

From 10 o'clock in the morning till 5 in the evening, a white man is seldom seen abroad; at the latter hour the race-course and the promenade on the battery are frequented by equestrians and pedestrians; and perhaps no circumstance that strikes the attention of a stranger makes so strong an impression on his mind as the general expression he observes of languor and debility in the looks of every individual he meets of European birth, (with perhaps, two or three exceptions,) in the colony. The young and the old, the acclimated even, as they are deemed, who have had their seasoning either in one fever, or the periodical return of that malady, and have survived these attacks, show plainly enough the baneful influence of the climate, which leaves the features without vivacity, the frame without vigor, and the whole constitution apparently deficient in vitality.

Those who are not absolutely ill, are always ailing; in fact, all the white people seem to belong to a population of invalids. The sallowness of their complexion, the listlessness of their looks, the attenuation of their limbs, the instability of gait, and the feebleness of the whole frame, that are so observable in this climate, are but too evident signs, even where organic disease has not yet set in, that the disordered state of the functions which goes under the name of impaired health exists, and in none is it more painfully evident than in the general appearance of the European women and children in this colony. Indeed, to the latter the climate is allowed to be almost universally fatal. I desire to account, says Dr. Madden, for the diversity of opinion that prevails on the subject of the advantages and disadvantages of this colony; and while the commodiousness of its harbor, the beauty of the scenery around it, and the verdure and elevation of the mountains that form the background of the capital, are with many the subject of admiration, it is necessary to notice the effects of the unwholesome atmosphere, which is wafted over from the Bullom shore, and hemmed in by these mountains, varying in

height from 2,000 to 2,600 feet above the level of the sea, and to consider how that atmosphere is clouded with the exhalations that arise there from the decay of vegetable matter which is constantly going on. Freetown is represented to be placed in a focus of pestilential vapors. Dr. Madden conceives that the advantages of the position of Sierra Leone for trade have not been developed to the extent which might have been anticipated or expected. This settlement was founded originally to provide a place of refuge or support for a number of distressed Africans who had been taken from their own country, and had some knowledge of European manners and customs, and to try the experiment of making them instrumental to the introduction of civilization into the country they were then to colonize. In 1787 the first cession of territory was made by the native priests to the British Sovereign. This tract of land was made over to the Sierra Leone Company. In 1796, Governor Macaulay obtained from a native chief, King Tom, an additional quantity of land. In 1819 and 1824 large portions of country were purchased by the British Government. Previous to this formation of the settlement in 1787, the Portuguese had an establishment here for their trade in slaves. In 1787, about 400 negroes who had served in the American war, and 40 white females, who accompanied them, through the exertions in their behalf of Mr. Granville Sharpe and some others, were sent to Sierra Leone, and located there. In 1823 it was reported that only six of these negroes were left in the colony. In 1791, 1,831 negroes from Nova Scotia were brought to Sierra Leone. These were promised by the agent of the Sierra Leone Company 30 acres of land, 20 for the men, and 10 for each wife. On this point a great breach of faith was committed with the negroes, and the consequence was they gave up the cultivation of the land. In 1800, 550 maroons, natives of Jamaica, settled in the island. The jail at Freetown is said to be very badly constructed, and ill governed. There is no classification of the prisoners. Owing to the crowded state of the jail, and want of proper ventilation, confinement in it for any length of time is injurious to the health and morals of the prisoners. Dr. Ferguson, staff-surgeon of the 3d West-India regiment, a gentleman of color, pointed out one very loathsome disease, which is engendered in this jail, which attacks the membranes of the eyes, nose, and mouth.

The total population of the colony is 40,060: colored population, males 21,754, females 17,280; white population, males 75, females 24; aliens, males 927, females none.

"The annual expenditure of the Church Missionary Society was, in 1840, 6,852*l.* 18*s.* 11*d.*; that of the Wesleyan Society for that year was 1,483*l.* 0*s.* 5*d.*; and in addition to this sum, 500*l.*, raised among the members in the colony, and expended in it. Of the Church Missionary Society there were in 1840, 7 ordained clergymen, 10 European laymen, native laymen 23, and one female teacher. The number of the Wesleyan ministers was 3, and 22 native teachers, exclusive of the separate ministers and preachers of the African Methodist Society.

"There are 16 places of worship of the Church of England in the colony, one of these, in Freetown, capable of containing 600 or 700 people, and 39 Dissenting places of worship; and the number of persons

generally attending all of them about 9,000. The number of baptisms in the different districts in the year 1839 was 464; the number of burials 241; and the number of marriages 542. It is a curious circumstance, that while at Sierra Leone the number of baptisms was nearly double that of the burials in the year 1839, at the island of St. Mary's, on the Gambia, in that year the number of deaths was just double that of the births, and the number of marriages not one-half of the number of baptisms; while at Sierra Leone the marriages exceeded far the baptisms in that year. The total number of children educated in Sierra Leone is, in proportion to the population, about one fifth; while in the Gambia the total number of children in the four missionary schools of the whole colony, namely, 701, is in proportion to the entire population, consisting of 5,000 souls, about one seventh."

The expenditure incurred for the government and maintenance of the colony, and the mixed courts of justice established in it, (exclusive of the expenditure for the maintenance of our squadron for the suppressing of the slave trade, and the payment of head-money on the captured slaves,) amounts to 89,468*l.* 16*s.* 4*d.* Of the above amount of annual expenditure for Sierra Leone, the colony itself defrays the sum only of 6,539*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.* The fixed revenue, however, of Sierra Leone, amounts to about double that sum, namely, to 13,162*l.* 8*s.* 2 1-4*d.*, and the incidental revenue to 236*l.* 13*s.* 1 1-2*d.*, making in all the sum of 13,399*l.* 1*s.* 3 3-4*d.*

The government of the colony is administered by a governor and legislative council, presided over by the governor, and composed of the chief justice, queen's advocate, colonial secretary, the staff surgeon, and commissary judge. This pernicious climate has proved most destructive to those who have been sent out to the colony as governors. From 1795 to 1830 the deaths of the governors averaged more than one a year. General Turner went out in February, 1825; he lived only 12 months. General Campbell survived only 12 months; Colonel Denham 6 months. Colonel Lumley lived only 6 months after his appointment; Sir John Jeremie died of fever four months and five days after his arrival in the colony as governor.

Mr. Madden discusses the question of the practicability and expediency of inducing the negroes of the Kroo country to emigrate to the West Indies for the purpose of being employed there in agricultural labor. On this subject, he states the following curious facts:

"For the purpose of ascertaining the matter, I took advantage of a visit to the Kroo coast to assemble the chiefs and head people of the towns of Grand Sesters and Cape Palmas, and lay the question of the proposed advantages of emigration to the West Indies fairly and fully before them. I ought to state that my instructions applied only to the removal of negroes from our settlement on the coast; but for the reasons assigned, and the purpose of really knowing what prospect there was of ever being able to effect an emigration from the countries of the natives with safety to the parties and advantage to the colonies, I took the responsibility on myself of making these inquiries, and the following is the result of them:

"The negroes, at the first opening of the subject, expressed extreme repugnance at the idea of going to the West Indies; they said it was not the fashion of Krooman's country to go so far away from their own land; that they would not go to a country where the people were slaves; that they did not like West India country; that they never would be let to come back to their own country. After taking a good deal of pains to inform them what the actual distance was to these colonies; what the present condition of the negroes was there; what the wages were which negroes earned in those places; and at what reasonable periods they might stipulate to return, and with what advantage to their interests they might possibly return; I suggested to them that if they had any idea of emigrating there, provided they thought well of the advantages pointed out, they might send three or four of their head men from Sierra Leone with some vessel from that colony, to visit the West Indies and form an opinion for themselves, whether they would feel justified in recommending their countrymen to go to these islands as free laborers, who might count on the sum at least of a dollar and a half a week without deductions from their wages; and, moreover, that if they made such an application, I thought it was probable that the governments in those colonies would pay all the expenses of the persons they sent in the first instance, to see whether their going to those colonies would be likely to be beneficial to them or not. This proposition seemed to them reasonable, and several ultimately said, they would consent to it, provided they would be sent to the colonies in a King's ship, and provided they would be allowed to return, at the very furthest, after three years' stay in these colonies.

"I then stated that it would be requisite for their wives and families to accompany them, but this proposition was met with a loud and general expression of determination on the part of the chiefs not to let one of the latter accompany the men who went. One aged chief asked if the people who came from England to their country were married, and if so, what was the reason they were not permitted to take their wives with them; was it not because it pained their hearts when they were a long time separated from them, and this caused them to return as soon as they could to their own country? For that reason they, the chiefs, would never let the people of the Kroo country take their wives with them when they went away, because they were obliged by this means to return home, which otherwise they would not do. They would not listen to any argument against this view. In short, the women were to be kept as hostages for the return of their husbands to their country. In fact, no emigration was to be expected except on conditions which would defeat the object of the planters in the West Indies, and injure the morals of the negroes settled in them. It was one of the leading instructions to the superintendent of the liberated Africans in Cuba, from the Colonial Minister, to pay special attention to the equalization of the sexes in the distribution of the negroes, as it had been found in our colonies, that where that circumstance had not been attended to, the effect on the morals of the community had been very injurious. In another point of view, it seems to me it would be questionable enough whether

effects quite as injurious might not arise from the introduction of a new Pagan population into colonies emerging from ignorance and moral darkness into religious enlightenment and civilization.

"The Kroomen are all Pagans; neither the Christian nor the Mahomedan religion has ever made the slightest progress in their country; and there is not, I believe, a single instance known of a Krooman in Sierra Leone having been converted to the Christian faith.

"I took some trouble to make myself acquainted with their religious opinions, and elsewhere their own replies to queries on these subjects will be found. It will be seen that, like all the people of Africa, the propitiation of evil spirits, under the various anomalous forms of Fetish observances, is the only species of worship that is offered to supernal power, and that to deprecate the wrath of beings who have the power and the will to do injury to men, is the great object of their religious homage to the devils who preside over human affairs.

"These people, like all the other Pagan Africans I have met with, have an obscure idea of the existence of one great Deity, by whom the whole world was created, and to whom all good men go when they die. They have an ill-defined belief in the goodness of that Deity, but they believe his care or providence does not extend to the human race in this world; the government of it is delegated to the evil spirits, so that they offer no homage to the Deity, but only seek to ingratiate themselves into the favor of his ministers.

"They make no human sacrifice in honor of the Fetish divinities, like the Pagans of Dahomey, the Bonny, Ashantee, and Appolonia; they frequently sacrifice animals, however, to them, and this sacrifice of shedding blood and offering up the flesh of the slaughtered animal prevails over the whole regions of Africa, wherever Paganism has been found. I think the reintroduction of the devil-worship of these poor Africans into our colonies would in time seriously impede the efforts we have been making to christianize the negroes in these colonies, and unsettle the ideas of those whose fathers, at least, have been born and bred in Paganism. The other conditions of being taken out in King's ships, or, as they mean, under the protection of them, and of being sent back to their own country at the expiration of three years, I consider would be serious impediments to the removal, and objectionable to the pecuniary views that are entertained on the subject of their employment.

"And these objections and difficulties apply to the removal of the only class of Africans who can be found on the whole coast of Africa who would have sufficient energy of mind, love of acquiring money, and willingness to work hard for the sake of hoarding up their earnings, to emigrate to those distant colonies." — *Abridged from the London Times.*

KOSSEIR, IN EGYPT.

EXTRACT from a letter from Doctor Labat to the Editor of the *Paris Journal des Debats*, dated at Kosseir, an Egyptian port on the Red Sea, June 1st:

"After a long excursion on the Red Sea, which enabled me to visit the coasts of Arabia-Petrea, the magnificent sites of Mount Sinai, the Gulf of Acaba, and the shores of the Hedjar, quite to the borders of Arabia Happy, here I am, at last, arrived at Kosseir. This city, situated at the entrance of a desert valley, which extends from the Red Sea to the nearest point of the Nile, is with regard to Upper Egypt, what Suez is to Lower Egypt. It is by this double route, that all the commerce of Egypt with Arabia and India is carried on.

"Kossier is placed at the foot of a hill, the summit of which is occupied by a fortress flanked by four towers, and furnished with twenty pieces of artillery. Among these we found a French howitzer, bearing for an inscription 'Valence,' and dated 'Messidor, year of the Republic III.' This instrument, left by our army, has thus become a monument of Egyptian conquest.

"The fortress of Kossier, built by order of the Sultan Selim, and repaired by the French, protects the city against all attacks by land or sea. It was in fact cannonaded without success for three days by the English frigates, in hope of expelling our garrison. The brave Donzelot, who commanded the place, compelled the English to reëmbark after they had suffered considerable loss. The streets of Kosseir are almost all straight, and very neat, which forms a contrast to the general want of cleanliness of the Egyptian cities. But what gives a very gloomy appearance to it, is the uniform grayish aspect which is presented by the houses being built of unbaked bricks. Some rare dwellings, constructed of stone, or burnt brick, are not sufficient to take off that monotonous look, which always exists in the Egyptian villages. There are no remarkable buildings, except the governor's great house, which is situated on the sea-shore. Its architecture, which is in the Constantinople style, is not without elegance. The population of Kosseir amounts to about 2,000 souls, including the Turkish garrison, composed of a few canoniers and some Arnauts. There is no Catholic Christian except our consular agent. The English agent is a rich Turkish merchant, who has much influence in the country. There is nothing to be seen but sands and deserts in the neighborhood of the city, which circumstance accounts for the rarity of rain, and the absence of all water-courses in the vicinity. The water consumed by the inhabitants is brought from a distance of several leagues. That furnished by the wells of the citadel and of the city is of a very brackish nature, and filled with sulphate of lime. An Artesian well would be of immense advantage in this place. The port forms a curve, sufficiently concave to receive fifty or sixty ships. It is shaded on the west by the hills on the coast, which are the beginnings of the high mountains we perceive in the horizon. A considerable bank of madrepores, stretching out three hundred metres into the sea,

protects it from the north wind. It consequently remains open only to the southwest winds, which are not much to be dreaded on the Red Sea. The bottom of the port is sandy, and furnishes good anchorage. In order to obviate the inconveniences which result from the absence of a quay for landing, Mehemet Ali has caused to be built a fine landing place, which reaches out into the sea so far that small ships can come up to it. It was necessary formerly, in discharging vessels, for the waterman to go down into the water, in order to transport the merchandise to the shore. This point of the Red Sea furnishes fish in such abundance, that it is said the ancient inhabitants made of it their only food, which gave them the denomination of Ichthyophagi, bestowed upon them by the geographers of antiquity. One of these colonies was more particularly designated by the name of Chelonophagi, on account of the great number of tortoises consumed by them. After having eaten the flesh, they made use of the large shells as bucklers, and employed others in the manufacture of different articles of furniture and utensils.

"When the French army arrived at Kosseir, the environs of the city were still occupied by tribes of fishermen, who fled at the approach of our soldiers. It is stated on this subject, in the great work published by the Egyptian scientific committee, that the cottages of these fishermen were, like those of their ancestors, covered with tortoise shells. In the valley of Kosseir we found also the tribe of the Ababdehs, who are the direct descendants of the Troglodytes. They were so named because they inhabited caverns. Their manners have not changed. They have still the singular costume, which consists in a cotton or woollen cloth, that they wind about the body, and bring back over one of the shoulders; their long hair, which contrasts with the shorn heads of the other Mussulmans, which are always covered, the strangeness of their language, their passionate taste for hunting, the rapidity of their long excursions in the desert, all which peculiarities agree with the accounts we have of them from the historians of antiquity, and which M. Dubois Aimee, one of our Egyptian literati, has taken occasion to confirm.

"At the northwest of the height which overlooks Kosseir, we see a considerable number of little excavations, which still serve as a refuge to the Ababdehs, who are brought for purposes of business to the city, where they encamp temporarily, with their camels and flocks. This colony, which has remained until this day out of the pale of civilization, lives entirely isolated from the neighboring tribes, with which they have never consented to mingle. It has nothing in common with the Arabians but the Mahomedan religion, which it has not accepted without allying with it some of their ancient idolatrous practices. These modern Troglodytes, whom I was able to visit without the least danger, thanks to the favour granted me by the viceroy, number still several thousands of individuals spread over the vast surface of uncultivated country which reaches from the Nile to Kosseir. It is truly curious to see, after so many ages have passed away, these miserable colonies, which remain almost unknown, still preserving their manners and their primitive habits.

"At the north of Kosseir is discovered at the distance of some miles, a considerable heap of ruins, called Kadima, or old Kosseir. We saw

there no vestige of an ancient monument, but only the remains of a great city, which must have had a population of about twenty thousand souls. The port of this city, formerly large and deep, is almost entirely filled up by the encroachments of corals and madrepores. According to M. Gosse-
lin and several other geographers, Kadima must have been the ancient Myos-Hormos. M. D'Anville, however, maintains that this ancient commercial station was more towards the north. However this may be, Myos-Hormos was for Egypt of the old time, what Kosseir is to modern Egypt. I will only add, that the commerce on the Red Sea was formerly very considerable. On this part of the coast there were several other very important cities. Among these were the celebrated Berenice, (Portus Albus,) and Philo-teras Portus. Still more at the south was Sucho (Soakin) and Ptolemais (Theron.) But it was principally from Myos-Hormos that the opulent city of Thebes received the rich products of Arabia and India. To give an idea of the extent of this commerce, it is enough to quote this passage of Strabo, (Book 2d,) where he says, "that in his time a fleet of an hundred and twenty sail left Myos-Hormos to go to the Indias." It was also from this port that the fleet of Ælius Gallus sailed on his expedition to Arabia Felix, where the Romans possessed the important city of Aden, which they designated as Portus Romanus. At this epoch, numerous caravans of camels transported in some days the merchandise of Coptus to Myos-Hormos, whence they returned towards the borders of the Nile, with the products of the Red Sea, Arabia, and India. We see on different points of the route the ruins of ancient Grecian Egyptian stations, among which some wells, still in good preservation, are made use of by the caravans. They follow at the present time, the same route, except on leaving Coptos, which was entirely destroyed by Dioclitian. They now take their departure from Kenne, which is some leagues distant. These convoys, which effect their passage in three days and a half, carry daily to Kosseir considerable quantities of corn, barley, meal, beans, lentils, sugar, oil, &c., not only to supply the wants of the city, but also for exportation to Moilah, Sambo, Gedda, Confuda, Hodeida, Moka, Massaouh, and especially for Medina and Mecca. Lately several consignments of corn have left this port for the Isle of France, and other parts of the Indian Ocean. The merchandise destined for Arabia is exchanged for the coffee of Yemen, the gum, incense, spices of all kinds, India cottons and cachemeres. England begins to take part in these exchanges, in which she will find in future great advantage. Kosseir, however, whatever may be its commercial prosperity, will be in its relations to India nothing more than a second, so to speak, of Suez. This latter port, by its greater vicinity to Europe, and from the possibility of establishing communications with the Mediterranean by renewing the ancient canal of Ptolemy, will always continue to be of greater importance than Kosseir. In the present state of things, the Arabian ships cannot overcome, like those of Europe, the difficulties of navigation which occur at the north of the Red Sea at certain periods of the year. Kosseir, beside its immediate openings into Said and Nubia, would offer them also not less important communications with Lower Egypt, as well as the Mediterranean.

As may be imagined, England could not neglect the numerous advantages presented by this commercial station. The consular agent, therefore, seconds with all his efforts the transportation to the Nile of travellers and goods, which the steamboats from India land at Kosseir, before going to Suez. We have seen arrive in immediate succession merchant ships from Bombay, from Calcutta, and even from London. Some of these vessels, after having terminated their voyage at Suez, afterwards return to complete their lading of corn at the port of Kossier, where Mehemet Ali has given the most formal orders to assist all commercial relations. The impulse once given, the French government has not delayed to appoint a consular agent to give assistance to those of our citizens who reside in this region. The same has been done with regard to Kenne, situated, as I observed, at the extremity of the valley of Kosseir, corresponding to the Nile.

"We possess at Thebes, which is some leagues below, an advantage which we cannot pass over in silence. It is a great house, which our government has built on the colonnade of the temple. This house, after having been used by the officers of the Luxor, who were employed to transport the obelisk to Paris, remained at the disposition of our consul general at Alexandria, who kept there a guardian or protector. It is a foresight for which we ought to render thanks where it is due. Moreover, strangers and natives receive there equally a cordial hospitality. But according to a rule wisely established, whoever presents himself at this consular station, the keeper has orders to exhibit no flag but that of the French nation. I shall leave here in a few days for the cataracts of the Nile. My next letter will be dated at Aboukir, in Nubia.

"Yours, &c. &c."

THE MINES OF ALMADEN, IN SPAIN.

THESE mines of quicksilver, in New Castile, have been worked for at least twenty-two centuries, as Theophrastus speaks of their renowned cinnabar; and the Spanish engineers of the present day have declared that their ascertained contents are still so great, that they will afford a yearly supply at the present rate of 22,000 quintals for at least five hundred years to come. One of the most recent improvements consists in a return to ancient workings in the grand valley of Sisapo, described by Pliny, (that of Valde-Azogues,) where the Romans burrowed superficially, like so many rabbits, (not knowing how to extract the water if they sank deeper,) until they pulled down the side of the hill, and completely interrupted their own scratchings. After thirty years of toil, frequently interrupted by war and want of funds, the present miners have hit upon the original and almost untouched vein of fourteen feet in breadth, and here also, as well as in Almaden and Almadenejos, their works are in full activity. They are carried on in a very old-fashioned style, partly from the natural difficulties connected with the locality, partly from the

unhealthy nature of the work, and partly from the great disinclination to change old customs, which marks the Spanish character so strongly. The isolation of the site may be judged of from the fact, that the roads around are in the same condition that they were in in the days of Theophrastus, that is to say, in a perfect state of nature, and that the metallic produce is borne to Seville, a journey of between three and four days, *a lomo*; that is, literally on the loins of mules, for carriages of any kind are yet an unheard-of invention in those rocky regions. The injurious effects of the labor on the health of the miners are, indeed, serious and lamentable. Formerly condemned felons were employed in great numbers there, and even paid highly to induce them to exert themselves; but they did little excepting mischief, setting fire to the mines in 1752, and discrediting the honest calling of the miner. The administrators long and loudly complained of their inefficiency, and of the want of willing, active, industrious hands to carry on the work. The measures adopted, in consequence, by the arbitrary government of that period, were very characteristic of the system which reduced Spain to the wreck of an empire, without ships, colonies, commerce, or a dollar in her treasury; the free and guiltless peasantry of the surrounding districts were impressed and driven perforce to labor in the mines in society with the felons! This could not last, for human sympathies are stronger than the caprices of courtly political economists. The peasantry gradually continued to run away and leave the mines to the care of the felons and the barbarous government that knew not how to avail itself of the labor of free men. The succeeding Ministry made, however, a "great step in reform." Finding that the neighboring peasantry were, forewarned by experience, abandoning all connection with the mines from the dread of forced labor, attempts at colonization were made, and individuals were induced to come from Arragon by the promise of high wages and certain valuable privileges, such as exemption from taxation, both local and public, from service in the army, &c. The Arragonese, however, finding themselves attacked by the serious and unknown diseases induced by working in the mercurial vapors, speedily abandoned their labors and privileges and returned home again. The felons were, therefore, still kept in requisition until the year 1801, when they were shipped off to the *presidio* at Ceuta, exactly forty-nine years after they had set fire to the mines, and stopped the workings for a couple of seasons; during which extensive era (comprising two generations,) they had been endeavoring, unsuccessfully, to convince the government that they were the most unprofitable laborers in existence. At length the revolution came, and with it glimmerings of the unprofitableness of contending with nature. Now, the mines are all worked on the principle of free labor, well paid and willingly exerted, under difficulties and trials to health almost incredible.

The following passages, taken from a memoir written by Don Rafael Cabanillas, late Director-General of Mines, in 1837, respecting the perils of health and life to which the miners are exposed, will be read with interest:

"As these mines have augmented in extension, and their annual produce in mercury has gone on increasing successively, the population of Al-

maden and Almadenejos no longer suffice for all the works, subterranean and superficial. These daily require three thousand individuals; and further, when there is a necessity to give at times an active impulse to the excavations, furnish employment to a crowd of strangers, attracted by high wages from the various provinces of the kingdom, and even from Portugal, but generally for short periods; for as soon as these experience any injury in their health, they return home to reëstablish it. (The latest returns give a total of above five thousand individuals daily employed about these mines during the working season, including those employed in bringing wood for fuel and subterraneous works, and those engaged in the carriage of the quicksilver to Seville.)

"The inhabitants of Almaden, Almadenejos, and Chillon are, however, those who sustain the mines, and in the unhappy epochs in which political occurrences diverted the funds which ought to have gone to pay the laborers, had it not been for the constant and willing assistance of the resident miners, the entire plan of operations must have been stopped, and the administrators totally ruined. The honest miners, however, remained steadily at work, pumping, cutting out, and building up, as usual, although the government was, at times, totally unable to pay up what they had earned with so much risk of life and positive injury to health. The government, however, had, so far back as 1780, received satisfactory proofs that those who occupied themselves alternately in field works and under ground preserved their health better than those who remained altogether engaged in the mines; and liberally appropriated to their free use the estate of Castilseras, in the vicinity, secularized from the order of Calatrava. This grant produced the most rapid and favorable effects on the health of the mining population, enabling them to augment at once the sustenance, the numbers, and the comforts of the little Pueblos. Notwithstanding, every year many individuals are rendered absolutely unfit for further work; and as the excavations are constantly extending, the sufferers must be replaced by others. The truth is, that both in Almaden and Almadenejos, deaths and wounds are unhappily very frequent, and bodies may be seen brought forth from them more bloody and disfigured than can be found, perhaps, on a field of battle. Amongst the youth of these pueblos may be seen several blinded, lamed, or deprived of an arm or leg, the result of some misfortune in the mines. Strong convulsions, which keep the sufferers in continual agitation, are very general, almost depriving the patients of strength to walk, or power to eat, and usually terminating in chronic maladies, disabling them for life. Some fall into a state of paralysis, others suffer in their intellectual faculties, experiencing a species of stupor, which frequently becomes permanent. These unhappy patients, afflicted with an incurable and constant drowsiness, are named *Modorros* by the inhabitants. Thialism and spitting of blood, and other diseases of the lungs, are also very common; and in general, all those who dedicate themselves to the labors of these mines lose their strength, and their lives are never long, afflicted as they are with some one or more of those maladies in a less or greater degree. The children too, who, from their early years, devote themselves to such labors, thrive badly; many become infirm or disabled even before they

pass the age of boyhood, and the constitutions of all are weak and delicate. In short, the mining population of Almaden may be generally distinguished by their stunted and discolored aspect; and whether this be caused by their labors in the mines, or the effect of the fumes of the furnaces, or perhaps of both at once, certain it is that they present a most pitiable spectacle to all beholders."

A more recent report, presented by Don Joaquim del Bayo last year, gives a detailed statement of all the miners inutilized through various causes during the five years ending 1839. These amount to 267 wounded, 12 died in the mine from serious accidents, 14 mutilated, 255 disabled by long work, and 130 died early through convulsions, &c.; total, 522, out of about 4,000 actively employed within the mines, during a space of five years. This engineer states that exactly the same proportion of disasters and deaths takes place in the deep mines of Saxony.

THE FRENCH POST-OFFICE.

SINCE the important change which has been made in England in the rate of postage, there has been a good deal of discussion in France on the question of a reduction there. It has not been proposed to carry the reduction to the extreme to which it has been carried in England, but to limit it to such rates as may be anticipated to secure the same amount of income as at present, and at the same time greatly to increase the public accommodation. The following facts have been made public in the course of this discussion :

The post-office expenses in France for 1841 amounted to 20,434,582*f*. In this sum was comprised the cost of building a certain number of steam-packets to run between Marseilles and Alexandria and Marseilles and Corsica, which came to about 600,000*f*. During the year the receipts of the Post-office, according to the general account of the Minister of Finances, amounted to 48,142,691*f*. The produce of the general postage of letters was put down in the gross revenue at 39,900,776*f*. ; of the rural service, or cross-posts, at 2,402,632*f*. ; the duty of 5 per cent. on remittances of money at 1,004,176*f*. ; the charge on the transport of specie and other treasure in gold and silver by the Mediterranean packets at 183,830*f*. ; and the rest was derived from the fares of passengers by the mail-coaches and packets, the charge on the conveyance of foreign letters, and sundries, composed of fines, sale of the Post-Office Guide, and other items. From this statement it will be seen that the net revenue of the post-office is about 22,000,000*f*. For 1842 the gross produce has been estimated at 45,180,000*f*. , and the expenses at 21,060,000*f*. , leaving a benefit of 24,180,000*f*. ; consequently in any reform of the system to be attempted, the object of preserving to the state a revenue of 20,000,000*f*. must be kept in view. The reduction made in England in the rate of postage has caused a very considerable diminution in the

revenue. This was because they went from one extreme to the other. It is true that the number of letters has greatly increased. In 1839, previously to the reduction, there were distributed within the kingdom of Great Britain 75,469,000 letters, and in 1841 they amounted to 196,500,000, being an increase of 121,031,000 letters by the reduction of the postage. But this progress, however rapid and great, has not been sufficient to make up the deficit occasioned by the change, and it is not probable that the receipts will ever come up to what they were previous to 1840, when the alteration was made. Unquestionably, the advantage gained by the public is an ample compensation for the loss sustained by the Treasury. Nevertheless, if it be possible to reconcile the two interests, it would be so much the better. In order to show what ought to be done, we must have further recourse to figures. Our rates of postage are calculated on 11 distances. The shortest is 40 kilometres, (25 miles,) and the longest 900 kilometres, (562 miles.) All letters weighing 7 1-2 grammes, (quarter of an ounce,) pay for the first distance 2 decimes, (about 4 cents,) and for the longest 11 decimes, (about 11d.) For every distance beyond the shortest, an additional decime is charged, and if the distance exceeds the 900 kilometres, only 2 additional decimes are charged, however far it may be. Each post-office is considered as the centre of a circle of distances. Taking the progressive charge of postage by weight, a letter weighing between 7 1-2 grammes and 10 grammes pays a postage and a half; from 10 grammes to under 15 grammes two postages; and so an additional half-postage for every excess of 5 grammes. According to statements made by the Postmaster-General, the number of letters diminish in proportion to the length of the distances. Thus, out of the total of the 78,000,000 of letters sent in 1841 within the kingdom, upwards of 24,000,000 were destined to go no further than the shortest distance, producing an income of 5,147,775f.; in the second distance, about 16,000,000 letters, producing 5,093,051f.; in the third, 13,000,000 letters, 5,546,585f. Beyond the 11th distance the number of letters was only 80,000, and the produce 90,000f. According to this a reduction of the postage would most materially affect the intermediate distances, and create the greatest reduction of produce. By adopting the lowest rate of two decimes for the general charge, the letters sent within the first distance would evidently remain the same in number and produce. In the second distance the number of letters must be increased by one third; and, in the third, doubled, in order to produce the present amount of revenue. This, we think, would occur. For the distances which pay 6, 7, or 8 decimes, (6d., 7d., or 8d.,) there must be a three and four-fold increase in the correspondence to bring the receipts up to the same amounts. As the correspondence in England has nearly tripled itself in two years, it is not impossible that it may make the same progress in France. There can be no doubt that letters now paying 80c. 1f., 1f. 10c., and 1f. 20c., would increase to 10 times their present number if they were to be charged only 2 decimes; and it may be deemed certain that the revenue would sustain no diminution even in the greatest distances. The alteration we propose, therefore, could not be attended with the same consequences as in England: first, because we admit a general charge

double the amount of that in Great Britain ; and, secondly, because our present rates of postage are much lower than were those in that country previously to 1840 ; for a single letter, in France, sent to a distance of 40 kilometres, (25 miles,) costs only 20c., whereas, in England, it formerly cost 60c.; and sent in France 300 kilometres, (188 miles,) is charged only 60c., whereas, in England, the postage was formerly 1*l*. 20c., 24c.

The following is given as the numbers of the letters which have passed annually through the French Post-office since the year 1820 : in 1821 the number was 45,382,151. This increased till 1830, when it became 63,817,260 ; in 1831 was 63,390,592 ; in 1832 was 66,915,011 ; in 1833 was 78,886,377 ; in 1834 was 70,826,519 ; in 1835 was 75,019,918 ; in 1836 was 78,970,561 ; in 1837 was 83,348,008 ; in 1838 was 87,625,570 ; in 1839 was 89,313,080 ; in 1840 was 91,317,109 ; in 1841 was 97,015,009 ; and in the present year may be expected to amount to, if not exceed, 100,000,000, as, during the first six months, the number was upwards of 55,000,000. The diurnal distribution of post letters in Paris amounts at present on an average to 81,000 ; namely, 44,000 at seven in the morning, 13,000 at half-past nine, 6,000 at twelve, 7,000 at two, 5,000 at four, and 6,000 at six in the afternoon. Of these 61,000 come from abroad, the provinces, and the banlieue, and 20,000 from within the walls of Paris.

CAMELS IN INDIA.

We have within the last three months had constant occasion to notice the enormous difficulty of procuring camels at present experienced in Scinde and on the Sutlej—wherever, in fact, we chance to require their services in moving our armies. We formerly stated that the destruction of these invaluable animals, betwixt November, 1838, and November, 1841, must have amounted to above 50,000, and we gave the details of 43,400 ascertained to have been destroyed. We observe it stated by a Peshawur correspondent of the *Delhi Gazette*, that the force under General Pollock will require a supply of at least 30,000, and he probably is not greatly above the mark, though we, in our own speculations, have assumed one-third of this to be sufficient for the present. Thirty thousand camels moving in a single train—as they must do along “the gallery near Ali Musjid, similar to the well known passes of the Simplon, where a road of twelve feet wide traverses for two miles along the face of the rock, the lofty mountain rising like a wall on one side, and a fearful precipice yawning on the other ;” or the chasms and defiles of Khoord Cabul, will form a string of animals sixty-six miles long. Where they are to be found in the first place, or how in the second they are to be protected, it seems impossible to divine ; but these are not the points on which we are at present about to enter—General Pollock must see to them. Camels will carry a load of 400 pounds, but that which is gen-

erally imposed on them rarely exceeds 300 pounds. They are unfit for use until six years old, though of late much younger animals than this have been pressed into the service. If a load of above 100 pounds, or 150 pounds, be imposed on them, they are very quickly destroyed. Until the pressure which has of late become prevalent began to be experienced, female camels were rarely used any where as beasts of burden. In Scinde and Beloochistan, in particular, no labor of any sort was ever assigned to them. Of late they have, like the males, been pressed into the service; and mothers with young, or with a suckling at their side, may now be seen trudging along with the rest.

We have already extinguished nearly one third of the male camel population in these parts; and we are now busily engaged in annihilating the hopes of a future generation. All these things are formidable enough, and sufficiently fraught with danger in themselves; but we have as yet looked to the destruction of these invaluable creatures only as mischievous, inasmuch as it annihilates our military carriage, and clogs and arrests the movements of our armies. But war, however protracted, must at length have an end. When our armies retire in India, the drain of camels will cease; the inconvenience experienced from the difficulty of obtaining them, now so injurious to our movements, will then come to a close. But here the evils occasioned by the mischief already done only begin to be felt. The camel has been well called the "ship of the desert;" he is the only beast of burden who can travel over the arid tracts which skirt the whole northwest of India, from Guzerat to Delhi. Destroy this means of conveyance, and no substitute can be found for it. The merchant navy of the interior is annihilated, and, unlike the restoration of artificial vehicles, its replacement cannot be accelerated, and must be the work of time. Thus, at once, by our military operations beyond the Indus, is extinguished the means and the possibility of trafficking in the interior within the Indus. The up-country merchants cannot purchase from us. Should they desire to do so, they find that we have stripped them of the means of carrying their purchases away. According to Charles Masson's returns, (*Times*, July 24, 1841,) there were 6,500 camel loads of goods annually imported into Afghanistan from India and the Punjaub before the outbreak of the war. This commerce must for the present in a great measure cease, just because we have destroyed their beasts of burden, by means of which alone the transport of goods could be effected. But simultaneous with this we have thrown unbounded wealth into the hands of the Affghans; riches of which their wildest imagination never dreamed; that a large proportion of this will for the present be hoarded up, according to immemorial usage, cannot be disputed. The wants of the Affghans are few and very simple; but still, such as they are, with the usual sources of supply cut off from them by the suicidal hands of those who annihilated, while they professed to labor to increase, their commercial intercourse, and with the means of choosing another market, how are we to wonder at the statement of Sir Alexander Burnes, that the trade of Russia with Central Asia has doubled within the last two years? Why, in two years more, it would be no marvel should it double again. It will take a generation to draw

out from its receptacles the wealth we have flung around us. We seem now laboring with all our might to prevent its ever returning to India. Russia never yet produced a statesman who labored so hard, so systematically, and so successfully in her service, as Lord Auckland and his advisers have done. If there be wealth, or honor, or gratitude, at the Court of Nicholas, they ought to be heaped by the hands of the now triumphant czar, in boundless profusion, on the heads of those who have bestowed on him all his victories; who have, of their own accord, surrendered the armies, the riches, and the power of India voluntarily into his hands. — *Bombay Times*.

PEKIN, IN CHINA.

For about a century, Russia has maintained at Peking a convent and a school, where interpreters are formed for the Chinese and Mantchou. Every ten years, the persons forming these two establishments are changed, and new monks and new pupils are sent from St. Petersburg. The expedition, under the conduct of an officer, crosses Mongolia, and passes the great wall. During their abode in Peking, the Russians have the liberty to see and visit every thing without exciting the uneasy jealousy of the government. An officer of that nation, M. Kovenko, a major of the mining engineers, has recently published, in the "Annuaire of Russian Mines," a sketch of the environs of Peking. Peking is situated in a plain, bounded on the northeast by a chain of mountains, which the Chinese distinguish as north and west, according to their position with regard to the city.

The northern mountains are a day's journey distant from Peking, which does not imply a very considerable distance, for the Chinese in travelling never go further in a day than about ten leagues. In summer, this route is very picturesque, and the country well cultivated. The yellow millet is the plant *par excellence* for the Chinese. The grain is the basis of his food, the stalk is food for the cattle, and takes the place of hay, which they would never think of cutting in this country. The straw of another kind of millet, which grows to a height of fifteen feet, is used in making garden hedges, and also serves as a combustible in the interior of the houses.

Near the northern mountains arise the springs, the temperature of which is 45 degrees. The water is carried in pipes to the baths which are cut out of calcareous rock, and lined with sheet lead. After the spring, many people assemble in this place, either for health or for pleasure. The imperial family have a palace there, and several temples are found in the neighborhood. In these temples the weary traveller can seek refuge, but the hospitality of the priests of Khe-San and of Da-o is never gratuitous. M. Kovenko asserts that a rest of a few hours cost him 18 roubles, and a day's repose cannot be obtained under 25 roubles.

From this statement, the expense of the least excursion in the neighborhood of Pekin may be imagined. A great many fruit-trees grow in the valleys in these mountains, and willows, firs, juniper, and cypress trees may be found here, but these trees do not form forests of any considerable extent.

The western mountains are remarkable for the coal they contain. This coal is so abundant, that it is impossible to pass over a space of half a league without meeting with rich heaps. Meantime, either on account of this abundance, or in consequence of the obstinacy of the Chinese in not bringing any thing to perfection, it may be said that in this country, the art of mining is still in its infancy. Machines to facilitate the working of mines are unknown.

They have no idea of the pumps which are indispensable in draining out the water. If local circumstances permit, they work galleries for draining, or rather they abandon the work when the inundation becomes too great. Their system of ventilating the mines consists in making, at certain distances, openings, over which they place wheels turned by men. But these wheels, though incessantly turning, introduce little air. The mattock, the pick-axe, and the mallet, are their instruments for mining. They trace a vein by the mattock; they insert in it an iron bar, on which they strike with the mallet, and thus detach pieces of coal, of from thirty to forty kilogrammes at a time. Coal is at a moderate price in the capital of China. It is used for heating rooms, and is burnt in bronze vases made for the purpose, or rather the heat is distributed in pipes along the walls, as in a hot-house.

These precautions against the cold are very useful at Pekin, and are not a consequence of the fanciful habit which the Chinese have of always heating their drinks, and even their wines. It is necessary for them to guard against the rigors of winter, for it freezes and snows often in their capital, and on the 31st of December, 1820, M. Timkouski saw the thermometer descend to 12 degrees below the freezing point.

ST. ROLLOX CHIMNEY.

THIS great undertaking was finished June 29, being that day twelve months from the time when the first brick was laid, and the union-jack was, in honor of the event, unfurled from its summit. The greatest anxiety was manifested by a numerous body of the citizens to get to the top of the building, as indeed has been the case for some days past, and, through the kindness of Mr. McIntyre, the contractor, the wish was very liberally gratified; Mr. McIntyre himself accompanying each bucket-load of visitors. Some hundreds have been hoisted to the top, and, dangerous as the enterprise may appear, all who have braved it acknowledge that the risk was amply repaid by the magnificence of the prospect spread out below them. The elevation of this immense undertaking is 450 feet,

including 14 feet of foundation, or building under ground. Although only one chimney can be seen, there are in reality two, an inner and an outer; the former ascends plump or perpendicular to the height of 242 feet; the wall is two feet three inches in thickness at the bottom, and is gradually reduced to fourteen inches at the top; thus making the interior of the stalk wider at the summit than the bottom. It is intended that all the smoke from the works shall be conducted up this inner chimney so far as it goes; and it is built so that when wear and tear render it necessary, it may be repaired, altered, or removed, leaving the great outer protecting stalk untouched. The two chimneys are quite separate, the cope brick of the inner having a projection which comes within six inches of the outer chimney, and as it is built perpendicular, as we have stated, there are four abutments which rise from the bottom to the summit, and thereby impart to it sufficient strength. The base of the great outer stalk under ground is 46 feet; at the surface of the earth its diameter is 40 feet 3 inches, from which it gradually contracts to a diameter of about 11 feet at the summit. For 300 feet from the bottom, the bricks are laid with Campsie lime, river sand, and a proportion of mine or iron-stone blast, and the remaining 150 feet upward is built with what is known to the trade as Arden lime. There are, as near as may be, two millions of bricks used in this stupendous structure, which, at the estimate of 8 1-2 pounds to each brick, gives a total weight of material employed of, in round numbers, no less than 7,500 tons. There has not been a single stone employed in the whole work, even the coping being formed of brick cast for the purpose; and a notion of the vast proportions of the work may be learned from the fact, that the largest chimneys already existing in the city and neighborhood do not ascend more than from 240 to 250 feet from the ground. This monster chimney has been erected by the Messrs. Tennant, with the very laudable view of carrying away the smoke and gas from their chemical works, and thus affording the neighborhood all the relief in their power from any discomforts to which it may have been hitherto subjected; and it is earnestly to be hoped, that a structure which must have been erected at great cost will answer all the ends which have been expected from it.

The engineer of the work is Mr. Andrew Thompson, Buchanan street, and the builder, or bricklayer, is Mr. D. C. McIntyre. The foundation brick was laid on the 29th June, 1841; and, as there was a suspension from October till April in the present year, the whole may be said to have been completed in the short space of six months. The view from the summit is beautiful beyond description. On a clear day the eye rests in one direction on the lengthened course of the Clyde, the shores of the Dunoon, the Isle of Arran, the lofty peak of Ben Lomond, and the glorious scenery of the West Highlands; and in another direction the gaze commands the outlines of Edinburgh, the Frith of Forth, and the shores of the "Kingdom of Fife." — *Glasgow Argus*.

THE TOTAL SOLAR ECLIPSE OF JULY 8TH, 1842.

THERE are some questions relating to the physical structure of the sun and moon, which can only be solved by observations made during a total solar eclipse. In a partial eclipse of the sun, the excess of light from those parts which are unobscured is so great as to prevent observations with a view to such questions. No assistance is gained, for instance, in such inquiries as refer to the possible emission of a slight native light by the moon, to the nature of the zodiacal light, and similar points, by observations made in a solar eclipse, unless the light of the sun, which is very much greater than these lights, is wholly excluded. Although solar eclipses are somewhat more frequent than lunar, the extent of country from which any one can be observed is much smaller. Total solar eclipses can be seen in a small part of a small zone of the earth only, if at all, and from these causes the occurrence of a total solar eclipse, at a period when it can be observed in a civilized country is so rare, that the phenomenon receives a peculiar interest. On the 8th of July of the present year, such an eclipse took place, the obscuration of the sun being total in the southern parts of France, in Switzerland, and in the north of Italy. The following account of an accurate observation of this remarkable phenomenon is taken from a French journal; it was prepared to be read before the Academy of Toulouse, by skilful observers. We have been prevented from publishing it at an earlier period; but the observations made of the remarkable appearances attendant on the eclipse are well worthy of preservation, for so favorable opportunities as this are extremely rare. Our readers will remember that the last total eclipse of the sun observed in New England was that of 1806. The account which we translate, was prepared by Messrs. Pinaud and Boisgiraud, professors in the Academy of Sciences at Toulouse. It enters into the peculiar questions to which we have alluded, and suggests some new hypotheses as to the nature of the sun. The observations were made at Narbonne, in the south of France.

"We selected," say these gentlemen, "one of the towers of the cathedral of Saint Just for our observatory. At four in the morning each of us was at his post. Three astronomical spy-glasses and one of Gregory's telescopes were directed to the point of the horizon where the sun would rise. The chronometers were regulated, and besides these, we had a very sensible thermometer, two polariscopes, and a collection of colored glasses of different shades and thicknesses among our instruments. The thermometer indicated a temperature of 65 deg. 3s. Fahrenheit, in the shade.

"At 4h. 23m. 30s. the sun appeared on the horizon. It rose behind a zone of light clouds, which tempered its brilliancy; but soon rising above this body of vapor, which it had partly dispersed, it shone out with perfect splendor. From this time the sky was perfectly clear, and the observation to which we had so eagerly looked forward was favored throughout by the finest weather.

"As the hour fixed by the astronomers for the beginning of the eclipse

approached, our impatience and emotion were more and more excited, until, at the instant which had been named, the disc of the moon appeared upon that of the sun, and thus confirmed the infallible exactness of the astronomical predictions. At 4h. 50 m. 15s., about 27 minutes after sunrise, the eastern side of the moon touched the western side of the solar disc, in the northwest portion, at 41 degrees to the right of the vertical diameter, the eclipsing body advancing with a uniform motion from the northwest to the southeast. At 5h. 42m. 54s. the visible part of the sun formed but a very narrow crescent, the horns of which became finer and finer. Several dark indentations at this moment broke in on the regularity which had thus far been observed in the form of the crescent. They changed their figure constantly, and it was impossible to determine their number and depth from the undulatory motion of the rays of light on the edges of the bright portion. Dark stripes also appeared near the ends of the horns. Some seconds after, the disc of the moon had entirely covered the sun, and at 5h. 43m. 13s. the eclipse was total. Before describing the beautiful phenomena which were observed during the total obscuration, we will complete the detail of the several phases. The total eclipse ended at 5h. 45m. 11s.; it lasted, therefore, at Narbonne, 1m. 58s. As soon as the western edge of the sun passed from behind the moon, a brilliant light flashed out, then a very slight crescent reappeared on the north-northeast side. Several moving indentations and distinctly marked stripes again appeared, principally towards the ends of the horns. As the crescent grew larger, the number of these indentations diminished, and the dark *ligaments* which had seemed to unite the two extremities of the crescent had quite disappeared in 20 or 25 seconds. The eclipse ended at 6h. 42m. 40s. Its whole duration therefore was 1h. 52m. 25s.

"After this rapid statement of the several phases of the eclipse, we proceed to mention in order the principal circumstances which preceded, accompanied, and followed it.

"As the obscuration increased, the solar light, gradually growing less and less, spread through the air and on terrestrial objects a shade or tint which constantly became paler and paler, and in which we could not distinguish any positive and well-defined color. But it was not an obscurity of the same nature as that which follows twilight; it was a wan and livid light, a shade approaching to a tawny gray, which hung over every thing like a veil of mourning. It was difficult to resist a sensation of sadness."

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"The observations which had been made on former eclipses had led astronomers to expect that after the total disappearance of the sun, the disc of the moon would appear encircled with a ring of light; and the attention of observers had been chiefly called to the nature of this light, the moment of its appearance, its size, and the true position of its centre. As soon as the eclipse became total, a luminous crown appeared around the disc of the moon. It appeared to us to be of the same size in every direction. * * * This beautiful crown did not appear to be of any particular color; it was a white, homogeneous light, the intensity of which gradually diminished as its distance from the ob-

scure disc of the moon increased. We observed in it a few of those rectilinear rays, brighter than the rest, which have been compared with those which make up the 'glories of saints.' What surprised us most, however, was the difference of brilliancy which was observable in different parts of the crown. In the middle of the southeast region of the lunar disc, over an extent of at least 45 degrees, there appeared a beautiful *sheaf* of diverging curvilinear rays, the two last of which intercepted between their opposite curves, a spot where the light was much less intense than in any other part of the ring. Beyond this, on each side, a diffused, uniform light extended to the northeast region, near the middle of which appeared a large cone of converging luminous rays, more brilliant than the surrounding parts.

"The interior surface of the disc of the moon was of uniform obscurity, but not so intense that we could not easily observe upon it the micrometric lines of the spy-glass. We did not see on the surface of the moon any of those winding and moving flashes which were noticed in 1715 by Louville and Halley. One of us, however, distinctly saw the sudden appearance, about the middle of the total eclipse, of a brilliant point, surrounded with a bright circular scintillation. It remained fixed in the lower part of the south-southeast region, a little to the left of the vertical diameter, near the circumference of the disc, and did not disappear till just before the end of the total eclipse. Was it not the same as that observed by Ulloa, which that Spanish Admiral attributed to a long opening passing through the globe of the moon so as to give passage to the light of the sun, when masked by our satellite? Might not this light be the effect of a lunar volcano, the eruption of which precisely coincided with the moment of the eclipse, or may it not be rather attributed to the solar rays, which, reflected by a limited extent of the terrestrial waters, might have been thus concentrated on a portion of the moon's surface, to be sent back to us by a new reflection? Thus much is certain, that it did not appear to us, as to Ulloa, in the northwest region, but in one almost diametrically opposite.

"The most remarkable and unexpected phenomenon, however, which the luminous ring presented during the total eclipse, was this:

"On the upper edge of the lunar disc, extending from the vertical diameter towards the west, was an appearance as if of mountains of fire, with a perpendicular ascent on their left sides, but sloping down with sharp and broken points on the opposite side. There were three very distinct ones in this quarter, of which the first, which was the highest, had an elevation equal to one twelfth of the apparent diameter of the moon. A little further to the right, several undulating elevations were seen on the circumference of the disc, but none so high as these. They were less distinctly marked, but quite as brilliant. Two similar peaks, lower than those of the upper side, with their sides sloping in the same direction, were shining at the same time, one on the right side, a little below the horizontal diameter, the other on the left, a little above this diameter. That on the left side was the first that we noticed.

"Words fail us to give an exact idea of these fiery mountains. They were like rocks of melted crystal, of a pale rose color, seeming to have a

sort of transparency, and shining with a calm light, without sparkling. Their forms were perfectly distinct, the edges sharply and clearly marked. They preserved throughout the same forms, the same positions, and exhibited no changes, excepting that the peaks on the upper part appeared to grow larger as the total eclipse approached its end. They enlarged, not like a body which is itself elongating, or changing its form, but as if they were elevations, of which the summits and middle parts only were at first perceptible, the bases becoming gradually visible as the veil which had covered them sunk slowly down.

"This magnificent spectacle lasted to the end of the solar eclipse. When the sun moved from behind the obscure disc of our satellite, the first ray of light appeared with a brilliant flash, much more intense than the last ray before the total occultation. At this moment, but not till then, the luminous ring which surrounded the moon, and the glowing peaks which appeared on a part of its circumference, were suddenly overpowered in the fires of the orb of day."

This last, very singular phenomenon, of course opens a wide field for speculation. The very rare occurrence of a total eclipse is the only time when it can be observed, as the epoch of such a recurrence is the only time when observations can be made on some of the facts involved in it. Messrs. Pinaud and Boisgiraud, the observers, risk the following suggestions in the memoir from which we have quoted :

"A question of great interest here presents itself. What are these peaks, these mountains of fire? It cannot be supposed that they are the mountains in the moon, for as their obscure side was turned towards the earth, they would have appeared opaque and dark. Besides, the edges of the lunar disc have never exhibited asperities of such great size. It was no phenomenon arising from refraction, or any other influence affecting the rays of light: the perfect quiescence of these luminous bodies, the sharpness of their edges, the irregularity of their position around the disc of the moon, forbid such a supposition, which, indeed, cannot be justified by any known physical phenomena.

"If these bodies did not belong to the moon; if they were not appearances produced by the eclipse itself; the most natural hypothesis is that which places them in the sun.

"This supposition is so new, that we hazard it with great hesitation. It is not, however, impossible; for we may suppose that these solar mountains, if they exist, are only a small fraction of the whole mass of the sun, and send to the earth a light incomparably less than that emitted from the whole globe. On this supposition they would necessarily disappear in the brilliant light which comes to us from its disc, particularly when that light is dimmed by the interposition of dark glasses. We may here observe, that these fiery mountains, as well as the luminous ring in which they were enveloped, were entirely invisible when searched for with a telescope fitted with a colored glass. They could only be seen through instruments with transparent glasses. We will add, that the perceptible increase in height, which we noticed in the peaks on the upper side, accorded, in our opinion, with the gradual progress of the moon before the sun."

THE KHOUDS, IN INDIA.

THE late London journals have given some account of a race of people in India, professing a peculiar religious faith, hitherto little known; namely, the Khouds. One of these papers gives the following account of this singular form of superstition. It purports to be founded on the report of an officer, Lieutenant Macpherson, who was deputed by the government for the purpose of observing the peculiarities of this people. This inquiry was set on foot for the ultimate purpose of abolishing the practice of human sacrifice, to which the race is inveterately addicted. These Khouds, it seems, occupy the mountainous region of the Gangan and Cuttack districts, and have maintained their independence amid every change of dynasty in India, while at the same time they are connected with the Hindoo Zemindarees in their vicinity, to whom they render a sort of allegiance, promising them military aid. The patriarch of each tribe attends at stated periods on a Hindoo Rajah, and receives from him a dress of honor. This sort of investiture does not appear consistent with their attribute of freedom, but they seem to set off one homage against another, since they send to the Zemindars a similar robe of homage on their accession to their estates. The government of the Khouds is entirely patriarchal, and the patriarch of each tribe is chosen from the members of a particular family. He is scarcely a ruler, nor is he particularly distinguished from the rest in any other respect than being a kind of head man in a village. There is, however, a federal patriarch of all the tribes in one district, who, while he is paramount over the rest, is at the same time an agent of the Zemindars. All the Khouds are allodial proprietors of the soil, both renters and hired laborers being unknown among them. They conduct their agricultural operations with great skill, and they are honorably distinguished for their hospitality. Their villages cannot be entered without an invitation, but when a stranger is invited, he remains as long as he pleases, and cannot be turned away. Indeed, life and honor are pledged for the safety of a guest, who is considered even before a child. Their fidelity to their engagements is also remarkable, and to bind themselves by an oath, they swear upon the skin of a tiger. So far, the race appears virtuous enough; but it is the prevalence of human sacrifice, not from motives of vengeance, but from purely religious grounds, that renders them an object of attention. According to their theology, the "Bera Pennoo," or Earth-god, holds the preëminence among the national deities. The earth having originally been an unstable mass, unfit for cultivation, this Earth-god ordered that human blood should be spilled before him. The soil then became firm and productive, and the deity of the Khouds commanded the repetition of the sacrifice as necessary to existence. Carrying out the principles of this creed, the Khoud thinks that every field must be enriched with human blood when the principal crops are sowed; another oblation of the same kind is required at harvest time; and in case of any incidental calamity, such as an epidemic disorder, an attack of wild beasts, &c., the wrath of the Earth-god must be appeased by this

barbarous sacrifice. The victims are Hindoos purchased for the purpose, and are treated as sacred persons till their time for immolation comes, when amid the most elaborate ceremonies they are torn to pieces, yet living, by the crowd. To stop these barbarous proceedings the government of India feels that it is morally bound, but the means of effecting the desired reformation are not at all obvious, as the Khouds consider the sacrifice as absolutely necessary to their existence, and would struggle hard to maintain it, while they are scattered over so wide an expanse of country, and the climate is so unwholesome, that military occupation would be almost impossible.

REAL PROPERTY IN ENGLAND AND WALES.

ACCORDING to a return made to an order of the House of Commons last session, it appears that the total annual value of real property assessed to the poor-rates in England is 59,685,412*l.*; of which 30,448,991*l.* consisted of landed property, 22,991,472*l.* of dwelling-houses, and 6,244,940*l.* of all other kinds of property.

Middlesex, although the smallest county but one, namely, Rutland, comprising as it does the greater part of London, is, as might be expected, the richest county of the kingdom; its total annual value of real property assessed amounting to no less than 7,293,369*l.* This sum is thus distributed: Landed property, 304,653*l.*; dwelling-houses, 6,680,202*l.*; all other kinds of property, 308,514*l.*

Yorkshire ranks next to Middlesex in point of wealth, its total annual value of assessed property being 5,448,494*l.*, distributed as follows: Landed property, 3,865,496*l.*; dwelling-houses, 1,817,739*l.*; all other kinds of property, 575,259*l.*

Lancashire comes next. The total annual value of real property assessed in the county of Lancashire is 5,266,606*l.*, made up as follows: Landed property, 1,402,208*l.*; dwelling-houses, 2,449,196*l.*; all other kinds of property, 1,415,202*l.*

Rutland, as it is the smallest, so is it also the least wealthy county; its total annual value of real property being only 119,134*l.*, composed as follows: Landed property, 106,119*l.*; dwelling-houses, 9,104*l.*; all other kinds of property, 3,911*l.*

Westmoreland is the next least wealthy county; the total annual value of its real property assessed being 266,335*l.*; made up of real property, 221,054*l.*; dwelling-houses, 37,374*l.*; all other kinds of property, 7,907*l.*

Huntingdon is next, the total annual value of its real property assessed being 317,718*l.*, made up as follows: Landed property, 236,633*l.*; dwelling-houses, 71,221*l.*; all other kinds of property, 9,864*l.*

The sum levied for poor-rates in England for the year ending Lady-day, 1841, was 6,009,564*l.* The rate in the pound on the annual value of real property assessed in 1841 was, for the whole of England, 2*s.*

It is a circumstance worthy of notice, that the rates are highest in those parts of the country which we are not accustomed to refer to as the most distressed. The highest rated county is Wilts, in which the rate amounts to 3s. in the pound. In Sussex the rate is only one penny in the pound less than in Wiltshire, namely, 2s. 11d. In Buckinghamshire, Suffolk, and Surrey, the rate is 2s. 9d. in the pound; in Essex, Dorset, Gloucester, and Southampton, it is 2s. 8d.; whilst in Yorkshire it is only 1s. 11d., and in Lancashire, 1s. 8d.

The rate per head of annual value of real property is, for the whole kingdom, 3*l.* 19s. 7d. The rate per head is highest in Herefordshire, namely, 5*l.* 19s. 1d., and lowest in Cornwall, namely, 2*l.* 13s. 4d. The area of England in English statute acres, is 31,770,615. The average annual value per acre for the whole kingdom is 19s. 2d. Middlesex is the county in which the value reaches the highest point; the average value there is 1*l.* 14s. per acre. In Leicestershire the annual value per acre is 1*l.* 7s., and in Lancashire 1*l.* 5s. The county in which land is of the lowest value is Westmoreland, where the average annual value per acre is only 9s. 1d.; in Northumberland it is 12s. 9d., and in Sussex it is 13s. 6d.

The total annual value of real property in Wales assessed to the poor-rates is 2,854,618*l.*, of which 2,206,146*l.* consist of landed property, 394,929*l.* of dwelling-houses, and 253,543*l.* of all other kinds of property.

The total sum levied in Wales for poor rates for the year ended Lady-day, 1841, was 342,264*l.* The average rate in the pound for the whole country is higher than in England, it being 2s. in the latter, and 2s. 5d. in Wales. The poor-rates are highest in Carnarvonshire, namely, 3s. 2d. in the pound, and lowest in Brecon, 1s. 7d.

The area of Wales in English statute acres is 4,752,000. The average annual value per acre for the whole country is 9s. 3d. Land is most valuable in Anglesea, where the average value is 19s.; and least valuable in Merionethshire, where the average value is 4s. 8d.

THE HOSPITAL OF INVALIDS, OF PARIS.

On the 21st of October, Marshal Oudinot, Duke of Reggio, was appointed Governor of the Hospital of Invalids, which has been for some time vacant, in consequence of the death of the Duke of Cornegiano. The officers and residents of this institution are the following, namely: 1 governor, 1 lieutenant-general, 1 lieutenant-colonel, 1 major, 2 military sub-intendants, 1 head-physician, 1 head-surgeon, 1 head-pharmacien, 1 assistant-surgeon, 3 sub-assistant surgeons, 1 assistant-pharmacien, (aide major,) 5 infirmary-assistants, 25 sisters of charity, and 260 servants of all kinds, 1 almoner and 2 chaplains, 1 treasurer (archiviste), 1 architect, 1 controller of works, and 1 piqueur of the Ponts

et Chaussées. The full number of invalides is 2,913, composed of 1 colonel, 1 chef-de-bataillon, 46 captains, 65 lieutenants, 49 sub-lieutenants, 24 chefs-de-division and adjutants, 12 non-commissioned adjutants, 71 honorary-captains, 266 honorary-lieutenants, 51 sergeant-majors, 260 sergeants, 448 corporals, 1,603 soldiers, and 16 drummers. There are at this moment 17 epileptic patients, 10 invalides deprived of both legs, 5 of both arms, 365 of one leg, 255 of one arm, 180 are blind, 154 have wounds reckoned equivalent to the loss of a limb; of the total number of inmates 667 are more than 70 years of age. The knights of the order of St. Louis are 16 in number, those of the Legion of Honor, 211. At the table of the officers, each is allowed for breakfast a plate of meat, a plate of vegetables, and a salad; at dinner they have soup and bouilli, a plate of meat, a plate of vegetables, and dessert. When poultry is served, a fowl is for four, and a turkey for six. On Sunday a plate of meat may be exchanged for some luxury, and on Monday eggs are also served. The superior officers are served apart in their own rooms, and have an additional plate of meat every day. Every man, from the colonel to the private soldier, has a litre of wine, and a pound and a half of bread, both of good quality. There is but one kind of bread, but there is a better kind of wine for the sick. The non-commissioned officers and soldiers have for breakfast every day soup and bouilli and fresh vegetables; at dinner they have each a plate of meat, vegetables, and cheese. The officers are served with silver plate, which was the gift of the Emperor. Twelve persons dine at each table. There are three grand repasts annually, at which choice food and wine are served. These are, the birthday of the sovereign, Twelfth-day, and the 30th of July, in commemoration of the Revolution. On Twelfth-day a cake of six pounds is given to every 12 men. The weight of meat at each meal to officers and men is 20 decagrammes, (the fifth of a killogramme, or about half a pound English,) if prepared with vegetables, or 25 decagrammes, if roasted.

CHRONOLOGY.

PESTH, (Hungary,) August 24. The ceremony of laying the foundation-stone of the suspension bridge now being erected across the Danube, to unite the cities of Pesth and Buda, took place this day. Of the gigantic work now in progress, two coffer-dams, unequalled in cubical dimensions by any ever yet constructed, are now complete and water-tight, being those on the Pesth side, whilst those on the Buda side are in an advanced stage. That destined for the sustaining pier on the Pesth shore was the scene of yesterday's display. It was fitted up as a vast saloon, with graduated seats all round it, to accommodate two thousand people, with a "loge," or box, for the royal party, on a platform at one end, all tastefully covered

and decorated with cloth and drapery of the national colors, green, red, and white. Some time previous to the hour named, those who had obtained tickets of admission took their seats with order and precision, and shortly after 5 o'clock, P. M., (the appointed time,) a discharge of artillery announced the departure of the Royal cortège from the Palatine's Palace at Buda, and in due time the Archduke Charles, the hero of Wagram, dressed in an Hussar uniform of red, wearing the order of the Fleece, with numerous other decorations, being commissioned by his nephew the Emperor Ferdinand to represent him on this occasion, descended the spacious stairs made in the framework of the dam, accompanied by the Palatine, his Archduchess, and their two children, (the Archduke Joseph and Princess Elizabeth,) the flower of Hungary's nobles, the magistrates and officials of the cities, aids-de-camp, and, amongst others, Mr. W. Tierney Clark, an Englishman, the engineer of this gigantic work. Their Highnesses, having reached their places amidst cries of "*Elf'en*," (pronounced *Eh-en*, the Hungarian of "*Viva*," or our "*Hurrah!*") remained there to hear, read and to sign with others the inscription, in Hungarian, to be placed beneath the foundation-stone; which being done, it was, with the coins of the realm, placed by the engineer in its destined bed, and on a signal being given by him, the "traveler," (the machine for raising, lowering, and setting the ponderous masses of stone in such works,) was moved forward from the other end of the dam, bringing with it a block of granite of about 90 cubic feet in size, and which, being lowered and fixed in its berth, the Archduke Charles was presented by the Baron Sina with a gorgeous and elaborately worked gold and silver trowel, (executed by Messrs. Mortimer and Hunt, of London,) and mallet, and thereupon the usual ceremony of applying both to the stone was gone through by his Royal Highness, and then by the Palatine, his wife and children, the Primate, the magistrates of the city, the Baron Sina, the Count Stephen Izchenyi, and the engineer, which being communicated by the hoisting of a flag to those without, a response was given by a discharge of 25 cannon, and thus closed this interesting and splendid ceremonial.

The interior of the dam afforded no ordinary *coup d'œil*, peopled as it was by lovely and elegantly dressed ladies, the magistrates of the land in their studded and

jewelled Magyar dresses, the dignitaries of the Romish and Greek churches in their robes and crosses, the Austrian generals and officers in their well stuffed and padded white uniforms, and the civilian in his sombre and russet dress of the present time.

LONDON, October 3. **NEW ARRANGEMENT OF THE WEST INDIA MAIL.** The new plan for the West India mail-packet service, which has just gone into operation, is here explained in detail, on account of its importance, as one of the principal channels of communication between the two continents.

According to this plan, a steamer engaged on that part of the service which is called the "Out-Atlantic" is to leave Southampton on the 1st and 15th of each month, (perhaps a day later,) and will, while Falmouth is retained as a port call there for the outward mails, leaving on the 15th and 17th. She will then proceed to Corunna, remaining 12 hours for coals, and thence to Funchal, Madeira, where she will remain to land her mails, for a period not exceeding six hours. She then goes on to St. Thomas's, and there delivers her outward mails to four steamers, waiting for her, and the destination of which will presently be explained. Having thus dispersed her mails, she in her turn becomes one of the four vessels to await the arrival of the next steamer, that will follow from Europe in 15 days. The voyage from Falmouth to St. Thomas's is estimated at about 19 1-2 days.

The first of the four steamers receiving her mails at St. Thomas's, sets out on the Demerara route, it being calculated that she is to start about 22 days after the first steamer left England, or two days and a half after the arrival of that vessel at St. Thomas's. On her route she delivers mails at the following places, in the order in which they are here set down: Tortola, St. Kitt's, Nevis, Montserrat, Antigua, Guadaloupe, Dominica, Martinique, St. Lucia, Barbadoes, and Demerara, calling at all the same islands in the reverse order on her way back to St. Thomas's, where she returns after an estimated absence of 14 days and 5 hours. For stopping at each island, both on the route to Demerara and back, two hours at most are allowed, and at Demerara she will remain to "coal" until 30 days 15 hours, reckoned from the time when the outward mail left Falmouth. At Barbadoes, where she will arrive in 25 days 8 hours, reckoned from the same distance, she will find a small

steamer destined for the Trinidad station, which will necessarily visit St. Vincent's, Grenada, Tobago, and Trinidad, touching at the same places on her way back to Barbadoes, and occupying by her total route from and to Barbadoes, 6 days 13 hours. The stay at Trinidad is so to be regulated that she may leave it in 29 days 6 hours from the date of the departure of the outward mails from Falmouth, and when she has returned to Barbadoes, she is to wait there for the next arrival from St. Thomas's, when she will repeat her voyage as before.

The second of the four steamers which receives at St. Thomas's the mails from Europe, and which, like the first, starts in 22 days from the departure from Falmouth, is destined for the Jamaica station, and visits in succession San Juan, (Porto Rico,) Cape Haytien, St. Jago de Cuba, and Jamaica, and returns to St. Thomas's in 14 days 2 hours, having touched at the same places on her journey back. This steamer will not, however, take the Jamaica out-mails, but merely call for the correspondence from that island. The Jamaica out-mails will be taken by the third steamer from St. Thomas's, destined for the Havannah station, which will proceed at once to Jamaica, and then to Cape Antonio, Havannah, Nassau, and Bermuda, the voyage from St. Thomas's to Bermuda being accomplished in 17 days 22 hours. The fourth of the steamers at St. Thomas's is destined for the Bermuda station, performing her journey there and back in 12 days 20 hours, and is employed in receiving the home mails collected by other steamers, and the outward mails for Bermuda, if they arrive at St. Thomas's before midnight on the 22d day after the outward mail leaves Falmouth.

For the transmission of mails to Mexico a steamer is stationed at Havannah, where the mails will arrive in 20 1-2 days after they have left England, and will proceed first to Vera Cruz, and then to Tampico, returning to Havana in 26 days. The home mails from Havannah having reached Bermuda in 40 days from the time when the outward mails left Falmouth, and then collected at St. Thomas's in 41 1-2 days, they will all leave Bermuda in about 44 days, and proceed direct to Southampton by a large steamer, the voyage occupying 16 days 12 hours. For Laguayra, for Chagres, touching at Santa Martha and Carthagena, and for Honduras, schooners are to proceed respectively

from St. Thomas's, Jamaica, and Havannah.

The following notice is exhibited at the General Post Office.

"Henceforward the mails for Mexico, Honduras, (Belize,) Chagres, and the Isthmus of Panama, Carthagena, Santa Martha, Laguayra, and Puerto Cabello, will be made up on the 1st day of every month, as heretofore; consequently no mails will be made up on the 15th.

"The mails for the British and foreign possessions in the West Indies, with the exception of Honduras, as abovementioned, will continue to be made up in London as hitherto on the 1st and 15th of every month, except, of course, when those dates fall on a Sunday; in this case the mails will be made up on the following day.

"The packets will no longer touch at New Orleans, Savannah, Charleston, N. York, Halifax, Nova Scotia; Curacao, Paramaribo, in Surinam; Maracaibo, Bahia Honda, San Juan de Nicaragua, Mayaquess, in Porto Rico; Ponce, in Porto Rico; Turk's Island, Cape Nichola Mole, in Hayti; and Santa Cruz.

"On the return voyage the packets will continue to touch at Bermuda and Fayal, but the schooner between Fayal and Madeira, announced in the notice of December, 1841, is now to be discontinued.

The rates of postage to the ports in the British Possessions, are 1s.; to Cape Haytien, Guadaloupe, Martinique, St. Thomas, and Porto Rico, 1s. 5d.; to Havana, Vera Cruz, Tampico, Porto Cabello, and other foreign ports on the continent, 2s. 3d.

BERMUDA, October 11. The royal mail steam packet Isis, which was on her return to England for repairs, in company with the steam packet Medway, sunk last night at a distance of 40 miles from this island. The Isis had run aground September 12, on the east part of Porto Rico, and in consequence her bottom was much damaged. She proceeded thence to Jamaica, where she underwent some repairs; but it was found necessary, that for more effectual repairs she should be sent to England, accompanied by another vessel. She proceeded from Port Royal to Nassau, and left the latter place with the Medway, on the 3d inst., for this island. The weather continued fine until the 7th, when the wind began to blow fresh, and became a heavy gale from the eastward. The ship then began to strain, and the leak increased. The men were obliged to

be kept constantly at the hand pumps, those worked by the engines not being sufficient to keep the ship free from water, and during the night of the 9th the pumps became unserviceable, and the water gained so far as to put out the fires, and the engines stopped. The signal of distress was made for the Medway, and she immediately bore down to the relief of the Iris, in the midst of a heavy squall. The life-boats were now with much difficulty got into the water, but from the heavy sea running, little hopes could be entertained of saving the lives of those on board, expecting every moment the boat would either be dashed to pieces or swamped alongside. Fortunately, at this moment a heavy squall of rain lulled the wind and sea, and by great care and difficulty the boats were hauled under the lee quarter, and the passengers and half the ship's company lowered themselves by ropes into the first, and she was cast off and allowed to drift towards the Medway; the remaining part of the ship's company and officers then lowered themselves into the other boat, and she was also cast off, and the Isis left to her fate. All on board were saved, except one boy, who was unfortunately drowned.

LONDON, October 20. **PRECISION IN GUNNERY.** A highly interesting experiment was tried on board the Excellent, gunnery-ship, at Portsmouth a few days ago, to test the efficacy of the defences of the boilers in steam-ships of war. One of the difficulties to surmount, in order to render the steam navy of greater efficiency in action, is to afford adequate protection to the boilers against the shot of the enemy, as a ball perforating them would at once place the vessel *hors de combat*. With the view of affording this protection to their boilers, several war-steamers have been fitted up with extra defences at the parts where the boilers are fixed. These defences consist of fifteen plates or layers of metal, each three eighths of an inch thick. The object of the experiment on board the Excellent was to ascertain what resistance these defences of boilers would offer to a cannonade at point blank distance, which is four hundred yards. An iron target was prepared, made exactly of the material which constitutes the protection of the boilers of a steamer, and placed at the distance of four hundred yards from the ship, from which guns of different calibre were fired at it. Admirals Sir E. Codrington and Parker, and a great number of naval officers, including

those from the Austrian frigate, were present to witness the experiment. The first shot that was fired was an 8-inch hollow shot, and was projected from a 68-pounder medium gun. It struck the bull's-eye, or centre of the target, and, slightly indenting it to the depth of about five inches, rebounded therefrom, and was split into several pieces by the concussion. The second shot was a solid 32-pounder, and was fired from a gun of nine feet six inches; it struck the edge of the target, glanced off, and was split in two pieces. The third shot hit the centre of the target, where it lodged, having penetrated several plates. The fourth shot struck the third, and sent it clean through all parts of the iron, splitting it into numberless pieces, which were found on the off side of the wooden stage, on which the target was fixed. The fifth and sixth shots went through the perforation made by the third and fourth. About ten other shots were fired, all striking the target in various parts, and completely destroying it. The result of this experiment has shown how totally inadequate are the present defences of the boilers of war-steamers to protect them from the assaults of the enemy, where a precision of fire shall be attained. It has also shown, what is much more satisfactory, the high state of perfection which the gunnery practice has been brought to by those studying it on board the Excellent, thus practically proving the great utility of this admirable institution, from which gunnery officers and seamen are supplied to the fleet. All officers now are obliged to undergo a strict examination in gunnery before they can pass for lieutenants. Should any of the Excellent's hereafter be "called out," they can render duelling much more interesting than it now is; for having the choice of weapons, they can choose long 32-pounders, distance a quarter of a mile, and calculate with the same certainty of winning their man as a crack shot does now of snuffing a candle at twelve paces with hair-trigger pistols.

LONDON, October 30. **SUPPRESSION OF THE SLAVE TRADE.** The following letter, from Lord Aberdeen to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, which has been published in the course of the discussions on the slave question, has been the subject of much animadversion by the Paris press:

"FOREIGN OFFICE, May 20, 1842.

"My Lords—I beg to call your lordships' attention to the subject of the in-

structions given to Her Majesty's naval officers employed in suppressing the slave trade on the coast of Africa, and to the proceedings which have taken place with reference thereto, as detailed in the papers named in the margin of this letter.

"Her Majesty's Advocate-General, to whom these papers have been submitted, has reported that he cannot take upon himself to advise that all the proceedings described as having taken place at Gallinas, New Cestos, and Sea Bar, are strictly justifiable, or that the instructions to Her Majesty's naval officers, as referred to in these papers, are such as can with perfect legality be carried into execution.

"The Queen's Advocate is of opinion that the blockading rivers, landing, and destroying buildings, and carrying off persons held in slavery in countries with which Great Britain is not at war, cannot be considered as sanctioned by the law of nations, or by the provisions of any existing treaties, and that, however desirable it may be to put an end to the slave trade, a good, however eminent, should not be attained otherwise than by lawful means.

"Accordingly, and with reference to the proceedings of Captain Nurse at Rio Pongas, on the 28th of April, 1841, as well as to the letters addressed from this department to the Admiralty on the 6th of April, the 1st and 17th of June, and the 28th July of last year, I would submit to the consideration of your lordships, that it is desirable that Her Majesty's naval officers employed in suppressing the slave trade should be instructed to abstain from destroying slave factories, and carrying off persons held in slavery, unless the power upon whose territory, or within whose jurisdiction, the factories or the slaves are found, should by treaty with Great Britain, or by formal written agreement with British officers, have empowered Her Majesty's naval forces to take these steps for the suppression of the slave trade; and that if, in proceeding to destroy any factory, it should be found to contain merchandise or other property which there may be reason to suppose to be on to foreign traders, care should be taken not to include such property in the destruction of the factory.

"With respect to the blockading rivers, it appears from the papers referred to, that the terms "blockade" and "blockading" have been used by British naval officers, when adverting to the laudable

practice of stationing cruisers off the slave-trading stations, with the view the better to intercept vessels carrying on the slave trade contrary to treaties between Great Britain and the powers to which such vessels belong.

"But as the term 'blockade,' properly used, extends to an interdiction of all trade, and indeed all communication with the place blockaded, I beg leave to submit for your lordships' consideration, whether it will not be proper to caution Her Majesty's naval officers upon this head, lest by the inadvertent and repeated use of the term 'blockade,' the exercise of the duty confided to British officers in suppressing the slave trade might, by any one, be confounded with the very different one of actual blockade. I have, &c.,

"ABERDEEN."

LONDON, October 31. BANK CIRCULATION. The promissory notes in circulation in the United Kingdom, for the four weeks ending the 15th October, when compared with those ending September 17th, 1842, give the following results:

	This time. Oct. 15.	Last time. Sept. 17.	In- crease.	De- crease.
ENGLAND.	£	£	£	£
Bank of England,	18,553,000	18,814,000		411,000
Private Banks,	5,488,861	5,082,289	880,402	
Joint Stock Banks,	8,064,539	8,219,749	944,790	
SCOTLAND.				
Chartered, Private, and Joint Stock Banks,	2,748,795	2,848,549	95,246	
IRELAND.				
Bank of Ireland,	3,041,150	2,808,025	235,125	
Private and Joint Stock Banks,	2,002,784	1,983,019	839,772	
Bullion in the Bank,	8,801,000	8,808,000		15,000
Total Circulation,	35,843,929	34,949,594		
Total circulation, 15th October,			£35,343,329	
" " 17th September,			34,949,594	
Net increase,			£394,335	
From increase on circulation			£1,305,335	
Deduct decrease on Bank of England,			411,000	
			£894,335	

An analysis of the component parts of the circulation as at October, 1841, presents some startling results, when compared with the present currency, as will be seen from the following table:

	1841. Oct. 16.	1842. Oct. 15.	In- crease.	De- crease.
Bank of England	£	£	£	£
Circulation,	17,340,000	18,553,000	2,163,000	
Private Banks,	6,253,861	5,488,861		765,300
Joint Stock,	3,519,384	3,064,539		454,345
Scottish Chartered and Private Banks,	3,303,703	2,748,759		459,944
Bank of Ireland,	3,080,750	3,041,150		19,600
Irish Private and Joint Stock,	2,185,398	2,002,784		182,514
Bullion,	4,280,000	8,801,000	5,511,000	
				1,882,37

Thus we have a decrease of £1,582,306 in the provincial currency, against £2,163,000 increase of Bank of England notes. The contracted condition of the currency of the joint-stock and private banks has been occasioned by the increasing poverty of the people, while the Bank of England has given out its notes in exchange for light gold, and so obtained a great increase of its paper issues, and a large addition to its store of bullion.

PARIS, October 3. THE BANK OF FRANCE. The *Moniteur* publishes, in obedience to the law of June 30, 1840, the following quarterly account of the Bank of France:

Debtor and Creditor Account of the Bank.

	franca.	c.
DEBTOR.		
Bank notes in circulation payable to bearer, not comprising those of the branch banks,	223,748,500	0
Bank notes to order,	1,094,067	75
Accounts current of the Treasury,	131,254,798	47
Various accounts current,	37,636,175	35
Receipts payable at sight,	2,191,500	0
Capital of the Bank,	67,900,000	0
Reserve,	10,000,000	0
House and furniture,	4,000,000	0
Dividends payable,	566,827	75
Draughts of the branch banks,	282,701	29
Sundry accounts current,	3,991,959	9
	482,666,529	68
CREDITOR.		
Cash on hand,	205,377,260	98
Bills out for collection,	1,229,575	46
Commercial bills discounted,	150,874,068	18
Advanced upon deposit of ingots,	3,741,300	0
Advanced upon deposit of public securities,	20,971,604	26
Accounts current debtor,	16,323,531	13
Capital of branch banks,	20,000,000	0
Reserve,	10,000,000	0
Vested in public securities,	50,205,486	40
Hotel and furniture of the bank,	4,000,000	0
Sundry credits,	143,703	23
	482,666,529	68
OPERATIONS REALIZED.		
Commercial bills discounted,	251,285,000	0
Interest of cash advanced on a deposit of bullion,	8,015,600	0

Ditto on public securities,	16,466,300	0
Ditto on treasury bonds,	1,754,600	0
Amount received from sundry accounts current,	1,002,966,400	0
Amount paid ditto,	1,000,102,100	0
Received from the treasury,	100,425,500	0
Paid ditto,	111,476,000	0
Received in cash,	79,626,000	0
Ditto in bills of exchange,	494,564,500	0
Paid in cash,	97,332,800	0
Ditto in bills,	525,995,500	0
Certified by the Governor of the Bank.		
J. E. GAUTIER.		

PARIS, November 10. THE POPULATION OF FRANCE. The following is a statistical and official table of the population of France since the year 1700:

1700,	19,669,320	1820,	30,461,575
1762,	21,769,163	1826,	31,536,537
1784,	24,800,000	1831,	32,569,223
1789,	25,065,683	1836,	33,540,910
1802,	27,349,003	1842,	34,194,575
1806,	29,107,425		

The population of Paris, according to the census of 1841, amounts to 912,330; and, if the troops of the garrison and strangers are added, to 1,035,000.

MARRIED WOMEN IN PARIS. The following statistic of the ages of the 121,525 women married in Paris in the course of the last eighteen years is given by one of the French journals as having been verified by the registers of the *Etat Civil*. Between 12 and 15 years old there were 814; at 16 years, 1,920; at 17 years, 3,959; at 18 years, 5,516; at 19 years, 6,957; at 20 years, 7,610; at 21 years, 8,047; at 22 or 23, between 7,000 and 8,000; at 24 or 25, upwards of 6,000; but at 26, 27, and 28, they scarcely exceed 5,000. This decreasing progression goes on, so that up to 31 years there were only 3,651; thence to 41 years, 1,798; at 42 years, 1,015; at 48 years, 566; at 56 years, 226; at 60 years, 126; and during the eighteen years there were 578 marriages of women aged 61 years and upwards. Another account shows that out of 1,460,000 married in Paris, 521,653, being more than one half, were married before the commencement of their 20th year.

PARIS, October 28. FRENCH CAVALRY. The French cavalry, according to the account of M. F. Lenfant in an interesting memoir, loses more horses than that of any other nation. The service of their troop-horses seldom exceeds three years, and every year, instead of having

to purchase 5,000, the Government is obliged to buy 8,400. In France there are 2,500,000 horses of all kinds, yet in the 200,000 foaled every year, there is not a sufficient number to supply the 20,000 required for remounting the cavalry. Between 1523 and the end of 1840, not less than 346,000 horses have been imported, at an annual expense of between 13,000,000 francs and 14,000,000 francs. In 1819 the Duke d'Escars declared, in the name of the Royal Breeding Stud Commission, that 4,000 choice stallions were required to regenerate the breed of French horses. There are at present only 800 thoroughbred stallions in the breeding-studs, and 177 in the possession of farmers. M. Lenfant considers that 1,500 ought to be purchased, and 6,000 or 8,000 good brood mares.

PARIS, October 29. **IMPROVEMENT IN FIRE-ARMS.** An experiment was made at Vincennes on Wednesday, the 19th inst., in the presence of the Duke de Montpensier and of General Rostolan, as to the relative merits of the common musket used by the infantry of the line and the improved carbine of the Chasseurs. The musket was fired by some of the best marksmen of the 68th regiment of the line, but their address was impotent against the great superiority of the carbine. In a series of experiments, which lasted six hours, the men of the 68th placed seven balls out of 200 shots in the target at 400 yards' distance, whilst the Chasseurs placed ten times the number of balls in the same number of shots. The Chasseurs afterwards placed 33 balls out of 200 in the target at 500 yards' distance, and 25 at 600 yards. When it is considered that 500 yards is the usual distance at which field-pieces are placed from the object to be reached, and 600 yards that of a 24-pounder, it cannot be denied but that a complete revolution is about to be made in infantry muskets in consequence of the adoption of M. Delvigne's invention.

ALEXANDRIA, (Egypt), October 6. On the 29th ult. the Egyptian fleet came into port again, after a very insignificant cruise of about 27 days just off the coast. The weather during that time was constantly fine and calm, but, notwithstanding, several of the ships could not have stood out many more days, owing to their very leaky state. Ibrahim Pasha is gone to Cairo, and Mehemet Ali himself, who has again taken up his residence on the

banks of the canal, intends proceeding to that capital very shortly. There have been some very severe losses in the Delta, caused by the breaking of dykes which had been raised to keep in the waters; in one place, upwards of fifty villages were entirely inundated, and the inhabitants reduced in consequence to hopeless misery. The mortality amongst oxen does not seem to subside in the least; in many places, where no animals whatever can be obtained, women and boys are made to turn the water wheels in their stead. Owing to the repeated applications of Messrs. Briggs and Co., the Government has finally promised to begin at once to clear and level the road in the desert between Suez and Cairo. By this the journey will be rendered much less fatiguing, and the distance will also be shortened. Some people say, that a coal mine has been discovered in the vicinity of Suez; should this be true, and the vein be of good quality, it will prove a most fortunate and valuable acquisition for the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company. The nature of the Arabian soil, however, precludes all hope of the mine being either a good or an extensive one. The plague seems to have determined upon giving us a little respite this year, and up to to-day no cases have been mentioned for the last two months. The Pacha has begun to erect a line of telegraphs on a desert road between Suez and Cairo, so that in two or three months' time the arrival of the Bombay steamer at Suez will be known at Alexandria a few hours after it takes place.

CONSTANTINOPLE, October 7. The Egyptian steamer Boulak arrived on the 30th from Alexandria, having on board Sami Pasha, Envoy Extraordinary of Mehemet Ali, whose unexpected return had caused a lively sensation in the Turkish capital. He was, however, supposed to have been intrusted with no other mission than that of thanking the Sultan in the name of Mehemet Ali for the high honor he had conferred upon him by elevating him to the dignity of Grand Vizier, and of imploring again the pardon of his Highness in favor of Ahmed Ferzi Pasha, the ex-Capitan Pasha and commander of the Imperial fleet.

The feast of the Ramazan commenced on the 4th, at 8 o'clock in the evening, by the sudden illumination of all the mosques of Constantinople.

Two Austrian engineers had entered

the service of the Sultan, and were to be employed in directing the works of a rich coal mine near Heraclea.

EDINBURGH, Oct. 13. **ELECTRO MAGNETIC LOCOMOTIVE.** Under the patronage of the directors of the Edinburgh and Glasgow Railway Co., Mr. Davidson, philosophical instrument maker, has been employed in a series of experiments as to the practicability of applying electro-magnetism for propelling trains along the line of a railway. The experiments having succeeded so far, a machine containing six powerful batteries, huge magnetic coils, and three large magnets fastened on each of two revolving cylinders, through which pass the axles of the driving wheels, has been constructed; and on Saturday last its motive capabilities were tested in one of the carriage sheds belonging to the Railway Company, in presence of several of the directors. The ponderous machine, weighing between five and six tons, was instantly set in motion on the immersion of the metallic plates into the troughs containing a solution of sulphuric acid. One curious phenomenon connected with the motion of this new and ingenious instrument, was the extent and brilliancy of the repeated electric flashes which accompanied the action of the machinery. The motion produced, though not rapid, was such as clearly to establish the principle, that this agent is adapted to the purpose of locomotion; and it is only justice to the inventor to add, that he expressed himself sanguine in his being able to obviate many of the difficulties which yet stand in the way of its being adopted in lieu of the steam locomotives now in use. All present expressed themselves satisfied with the results of this, the first experiment on the subject on a large scale. The result, however, like that of the many ingenious applications of electro-magnetism previously made, failed to demonstrate the practicability of accumulating such a degree of power as can be made available for any important purpose.

RIGA, October 20. According to letters from St. Petersburg, the fire at Perm was extremely disastrous. Almost every house was destroyed. The situation of the town is on the left of the Kama. It was but of recent construction, but has ever since it was built been gradually increasing. The population amounted to about six thousand, and a company was established there for the management of

the mines. There were also two copper foundries. A very strict investigation has commenced relative to the destruction of Kasan, which it is impossible to attribute to accident, as there had been no less than seven attempts to set fire to the town at different points.

ST. PETERSBURGH, November 4. On the proposal of M. Alferovsky, mayor of the city of St. Petersburg, the merchants have subscribed the sum of fifteen thousand silver roubles for the benefit of the sufferers by the fire at Kasan, which has been sent free of expense to that city. The Northern Bee announces that a very important improvement has just been introduced at St. Petersburg in the manufacture of lamp gas. This improvement consists in simplifying the apparatus by means of which this manufacture, which was a very complex and dangerous operation, is rendered so simple, that a man of ordinary understanding may learn it in six hours, without being exposed to the slightest dangers. The following, according to this paper, are the advantages of this new process, the details of which it does not give: "The gas having been extracted from coals, oil, tar, tallow, and all fat and oleaginous substances, the price of the gas is diminished by one-half. The execution of the apparatus on a large scale is very cheap. It is not necessary to compress the gas, nor is there any steam engine required to manufacture it. With the old apparatus it took six hours and a half to produce the same quantity of gas as the new apparatus produces in half an hour. The work of four men on the new plan is equal to that of forty on the old one; lastly, the quantity of time necessary to purify the gas is very inconsiderable." It is hoped we may have further details of this discovery.

BOULOGNE, November 13. **WRECK OF AN EAST INDIA MERCHANT SHIP.** It is our painful duty to record this day the shipwreck of the *Reliance*, 1,550 tons Captain Thomas Green, from China, of Merlimont, on Saturday morning. It would seem, from the wind being fair, that they could never have seen land for the vessel struck about 2 o'clock, A. M. The scene of confusion and horror on board, at the moment, we understand, was frightful. With great difficulty could any orders be got executed, but so soon as a little self-possession was obtained, signals of distress were fired until daylight. But there was no means of affording the least assistance. When day

broke, and they saw the desolate and wild coast before them, the boats were hoisted out. The long-boat was immediately swamped, the others were over-crowded, and went down shortly after leaving the vessel's side; the rest were swept from the deck into eternity! We regret to say, that out of 35 Lascars and 85 white persons on board, only 3 of the former and 4 of the latter reached the shore in safety. Of the Englishmen saved, one is the carpenter, a young man. The captain stuck to the vessel to the last; he went down close to the carpenter, who was swimming towards the shore. Many of the bodies were washed to land, among others, a lascar who showed symptoms of life, and to whom every attention was paid by a surgeon, who hastened to the spot; but all his efforts to restore animation were in vain. We understand the scene on the sandy beach was extraordinary from the number of boxes of tea that were cast there when the ship broke up. They seemed so many rocks studding the shore. It was just past low water when she struck.

At day light the sea was flowing fast, and at 10 o'clock she was a perfect wreck. Out of 27,000 boxes of tea on board, only 1,386 have been yet saved, and these are all more or less damaged. The captain and the fourth mate are among the bodies washed on shore. Captain Tucker, R. N., late of the *Isis*, and who embarked at St. Helena, is among the six passengers drowned, none of whose bodies have been yet discovered. The seamen saved are R. Dixon, carpenter; W. O'Neil, of Kingston, Ireland; Anderson, a Norwegian; and Charles Batts, of Dantzic.

DOMESTIC.

DOVER, (N. H.) September 22. Last night died in this town the Hon. Jeremiah Smith, until recently of Exeter, in the 83d year of his age. He was one of the most distinguished men whom the state has produced, for his learning and talents, for his great uprightness and purity of character, his engaging manners, powers of conversation, and the devotion of his talents and labors to the public service. He was born in Peterborough, N. H., and was graduated at Rutgers College, N. J. in 1780. Soon after the close of the war, he entered the profession of the law, in which he became distinguished. He was a member of the Congress of the United States during the last six years of Wash-

ington's administration, and during the first session of the fifth Congress. In July, 1797, he was appointed Attorney of the United States for the district of New Hampshire, when he resigned his seat in Congress. In February, 1801, he was appointed one of the judges of the Circuit Court of the United States for the First Circuit, and when the law by which that court was established was repealed, he was appointed Chief Justice of the Superior Court of N. Hampshire, his associates on the bench of that court being Timothy Farrar, Paine Wingate, and Arthur Livermore. Two of these judges still survive, Farrar in the 96th year of his age, and Livermore 78. Judge Wingate died at Stratham, in March, 1838, in the 99th year of his age, leaving a widow who still survives, having entered her 101st year. Judge Smith continued in the office of Chief Justice with distinguished usefulness until the year 1809, when he was chosen governor of the state, which office he held one year only. In 1813, on a new organization of the courts, he was again placed at the head of the Supreme Judicial Court, which office he held until 1816, when on the accession to power of the Democratic party, the court was abolished, and a new judiciary system was substituted. From this time Judge Smith remained in private life, engaged in literary studies, and the occasional practice of his profession. He continued to reside at Exeter until 1841, when he removed to Dover, the residence of his wife's connexions. He retained his faculties, and his powers of entertaining conversation, in his advanced years; and closed his days in the full enjoyment of the esteem of all those, with whom he had been associated in the duties of his active life.

Boston, September 30. Mr. Webster was received by the citizens of Boston in Faneuil Hall, and the Mayor made an address, congratulating him on the able and successful discharge of his official duties, and particularly on the successful close of his negotiations with Great Britain. Mr. Webster replied in a speech of an hour and a half in length, which was applauded with great enthusiasm by a very crowded audience. The speech was published in the papers of the succeeding day.

Boston, October 3. The Phoenix Bank in Charlestown stopped payment, and its bills were immediately discredited. The Bank Commissioners, on examination applied to the Chief Justice for an injunc-

tion, which on hearing was granted, and receivers were appointed to take charge of its assets, for the benefit of the creditors of the bank. The Bank Commissioners published a report, from which it appears that more than the whole capital, \$300,000, had been lost through the failure of Stanley, Reed & Co., to whom loans had been fraudulently made by the President, without the knowledge of the directors. The debts of the Bank for notes in circulation, deposits, &c. amount to \$392,774, to meet which it holds paper esteemed good amounting to \$256,511, besides the obligations of Stanley, Reed & Co., \$344,556, and other paper, considered part bad or doubtful, \$55,690.

Boston, October 5. The steamer Columbia arrived at half-past four o'clock, A. M., in 13 1-2 days from Liverpool. She brought news of the arrival out of the Britannia, September 14, in 12 1-2 days from Boston.

Boston, November 22. EASTERN RAILROAD TO PORTLAND. The Portland, Saco, and Portsmouth Railroad was opened for public travel this day. The opening of this important work extends the line of the Eastern Railroad, from Boston to Portland, a distance of one hundred and four miles. This is the exact length of the route in the opposite direction, over the two railroads which form the line to Norwich.

This important and difficult work has been completed, including all the preliminary arrangements, within the period of two years. The subscription to the stock was opened November 28, 1840, the company was organized December 25, following; and the succeeding winter was occupied in making surveys of the route. The contracts were made in April, 1841, and the first ground was broken May 25. The length of the work now completed is 51 miles. It had some serious obstacles to encounter, particularly in several deep cuts through hard clay, and some heavy embankments over deep quicksands, where it was difficult to find a bottom. These obstacles have been overcome by perseverance, and in a shorter period than could have been expected, the whole work having been accomplished in eighteen months. The road is formed of a heavy T rail, and we doubt not laid in a workmanlike and substantial manner. We learn that the Directors propose to pass over the road for the first time on Monday.

Although the railroad now completed

is built by a distinct company, from that which owns the Eastern Railroad of this State and New Hampshire, it is connected with the latter road in the working, and with it will form a continuous line of communication from Boston to Berwick, Wells, Kennebunk, Saco, and Portland. The train leaving Boston at noon, will reach Portland at half-past five.

TRENTON, October 25. The legislature of New Jersey met at this place, all the members of both Houses being present. William Chetwood of Essex, a Whig, was chosen Vice-President of the Council, by a vote of 9 to 7, and Charles G. McChesney was unanimously re-elected Secretary of the Council. Samuel B. Halsey, of Morris, a Whig, was elected Speaker of the Assembly by a vote of 32 to 25, and Alexander G. Galtel was chosen Clerk.

NEW HAVEN, October 25. The legislature of Connecticut met at this place in extra session, for the purpose of districting the state for the choice of Representatives to Congress, and for other purposes. Governor Cleveland, on the same day, addressed a message to the two Houses. On the following day, a bill was reported in the House, to divide the state into four districts, composed as follows: 1st, Hartford and Tolland counties, population 73,620; 2d, New Haven and Middlesex, 73,568; 3d, New London and Windham, 72,572; 4th, Litchfield and Fairfield, 90,371. Total population, 310,131. Average of each district, 77,533.

MONTPELIER, (Vermont,) October 26. The legislature on the 21st inst. made choice of Hon. William Upham, of Montpelier, to be Senator in Congress for the term commencing on the 4th of March next. The vote was in the Senate 16 for Mr. Upham, and 14 for Hon. Wm. C. Bradley; and in the House, for Mr. Upham 122, Mr. Bradley 100, and 6 scattering. This day the two Houses proceeded to make choice of a Senator to supply the vacancy occasioned by the resignation of Judge Prentiss, and Hon. Samuel C. Crafts was chosen. The votes were in the Senate for Mr. Crafts 16, Mr. Bradley 14; and in the House for Mr. Crafts 117, Mr. Bradley 93, and 10 scattering.

HURON, (Michigan,) November 6. The steamboat Vermilion was burned to the water's edge, having taken fire just after her arrival at this place from Detroit. (Huron is at the head of Lake Erie.) The passengers were asleep in their berths, and before they could gain the wharf, the

fastenings of the boat burned off, and she drifted into the lake. In consequence, four or five lives were lost. Those who escaped saved nothing. The fire was caused by the accidental overthrow of a keg of turpentine near the furnace.

GALE ON THE LAKES, November 17, 18, 19. A disastrous gale, attended with great loss of property and of life, swept the lakes Michigan, Huron, and Erie. Winter set in with great severity at the same time.

NEW YORK, November 18. This was the day appointed for the execution of John C. Colt, for the murder of Mr. Samuel Adams. Several petitions for reprieve and pardon had been transmitted to Governor Seward, all of which he had firmly denied. The greatest excitement was observed in the vicinity of the prison yard, where the execution was to take place.

The hour appointed for the execution was four o'clock, P. M.; but when the sheriff went to the cell of the prisoner to lead him to the place of execution, it was found that he had committed suicide, by stabbing himself with a knife, which he had been permitted to have among his utensils for writing. At the moment that this fact was announced, it was discovered that the cupola of the prison was on fire, and this circumstance at once gave rise to a suspicion, that an attempt had been made for the escape of the prisoner, with the connivance of the officers. A coroner's jury, however, which was at once called, removed all doubts as to the transaction. Some excitement was at first aroused among the crowds of people assembled, but it subsided on the promulgation of the report of the official proceedings.

RHODE ISLAND, November 21, 22, 23. The people of this State, competent to vote under the Constitution recently drafted, gave in their votes on the question of the ratification of that instrument. It was accepted as the constitution of the State; more than seven thousand votes being given in its favor, and not fifty against it. The friends of Mr. Dorr, and of what is called the people's constitution, declined voting, so that there was no organized opposition.

This constitution was drawn up by the convention chosen for that purpose, under act of the Legislature of June 22, (see Mon. Chron. p. 286.) The Dorr party had declined to vote for delegates to it. The convention closed its labors on the

5th inst. The new constitution provides for a wide extension of the suffrage, excluding only those persons who have not established a satisfactory residence in the State. The question on the admission of blacks to vote, was voted on separately by the people, and the admission was granted by a large majority. The new constitution will go into effect on the 1st Tuesday in May next.

ELECTIONS.

BALTIMORE, Oct. 5. The election in the State of Maryland for the choice of part of the Senate, and members of the House of Delegates was held. The result was the choice of 4 Whig and 3 Democratic Senators, 9 Whigs and 5 Democrats holding over from previous elections, and making a Senate of 13 Whigs and 8 Democrats. Of the delegates chosen, 35 are Whigs, and 46 Democrats, making a democratic majority in joint ballot.

PHILADELPHIA, October 11. The election for the choice of Representatives, and a part of the members of the Senate, was held throughout the State of Pennsylvania. It resulted in the choice of a decided majority of democratic members.

COLUMBUS, (Ohio,) October 11. The election in Ohio was held on this day. Wilson Shannon, the Democratic candidate, was chosen by a plurality of votes, over Thomas Corwin, the present incumbent. The votes, omitting those of Butler, Montgomery, Highland, and Paulding counties, from which there were no official returns, were for Shannon, 119,703; Corwin, 117,911; Leicester King, the candidate of the Abolitionists, 5,172; and scattering, 40. The political character of the members elect of the two branches of the Legislature, is, in the Senate, Democratic 22, Whig 14; in the House of Representatives, Democratic 42, Whig 30.

TRENTON, October 12. The annual election was held throughout New Jersey, yesterday, and to-day. The result was the choice of 10 Whigs and 8 Democrats to the Council, and 32 Whigs and 26 Democrats to the Assembly.

DELAWARE, November 7th. The election of a Member of Congress and State Legislature took place. The Hon. Geo. B. Rodney, the Whig candidate for Representative in Congress, was reelected by a majority of 19 votes over Mr. Jones, the democratic candidate. The new State Senate consists of 7 Whigs to 2 Demo

crats; the House of 14 Whigs to 9 Democrats. The Senate is chosen for four years, the House for two.

NEW YORK, November 8th. The election in this State for officers of the State Government and Members of Congress took place. Mr. Bouck, the Democratic candidate, was elected by a majority of 21,952 over Mr. Bradish, the Whig candidate; 24 Democrats and 10 Whigs were elected Representatives in Congress. The Senate, of which one fourth is chosen every year, consists of 22 Democrats and 10 Whigs, the House of 95 Democrats and 33 Whigs. The political character of the Legislature was the same last year. Governor Seward, chosen two years since, was a Whig. By the constitution of this State the Governor is chosen every two years; the House of Representatives is renewed annually.

The following gentlemen were chosen Representatives in Congress, for the several districts indicated by the numbers prefixed to their names. Those whose names are in *italics*, are Whigs.

- No. 1. . . . Selah B. Strong.
2. . . . Henry C. Murphy.
3. . . . *J. Phillips Fenix.*
4. . . . William B. Maclay.
5. . . . Moses G. Leonard.
6. . . . *Hamilton Fish.*
7. . . . Joseph H. Anderson.
8. . . . Richard D. Davis.
9. . . . James G. Clinton.
10. . . . Jeremiah Russell.
11. . . . Zadock Pratt.
12. . . . David L. Seymour.
13. . . . *Daniel D. Barnard.*
14. . . . *Charles Rogers.*
15. . . . Lemuel Stetson.
16. . . . Chesselton Ellis.
17. . . . Charles S. Benton.
18. . . . Preston King.
19. . . . Orville Hungerford.
20. . . . Samuel Beardsley.
21. . . . Jeremiah E. Carey.
22. . . . Smith M. Purdy.
23. . . . Orville Robinson.
24. . . . Horace Wheaton.
25. . . . George Rathbun.
26. . . . Amasa Dana.
27. . . . Byram Green.
28. . . . *Thomas J. Paterson.*
29. . . . *Charles H. Carroll.*
30. . . . William S. Hubbell.
31. . . . *Asker Tyler.*

No. 32. . . . *William A. Moseley.*

33. . . . *Albert Smith.*

34. . . . *Washington Hunt.*

MICHIGAN, November 8th. The annual election of State Representatives took place. The Democratic party prevailed, as in last year, by a large majority.

MASSACHUSETTS, November 14. The election of the officers of the State Government, and of Representatives in Congress, took place. No choice of Governor was made by the people. Governor Morton, the Democratic candidate, received about 56,500 votes, Governor Davis about 54,876, and other persons 5,656. Mr Sewall, the candidate of the "Liberty party," received most of the scattering votes. Four Members of Congress only were chosen, of whom three are Whigs, namely, Mr. Winthrop in the 1st district, Mr. Adams in the 8th, and Mr. Burnell in the 10th, and one Democrat, namely, Mr. Williams, in the 9th district. Of Senators, 25 only are chosen by the people, namely, 10 Whigs and 14 Democrats. The Whigs are 5 in Suffolk, 2 in Hampshire, 2 in Barnstable, and 1 in Nantucket; Democrats, 6 in Middlesex, 2 in Hampden, 2 in Berkshire, 1 in Norfolk, (there being 2 vacancies in that county,) and 3 in Bristol. There are accordingly, as appears from official report, 16 vacancies, namely, in Essex 3, Worcester 5, Franklin 2, Norfolk 2, and Plymouth 2. Nearly a hundred towns, in consequence of the opposition of the abolitionists to both the other parties, made no choice of Representatives. In most of these towns, second meetings were held on the 26th, in accordance with the constitutional provision. In a number of these towns there was still no choice made, and they remain unrepresented for the year. It is impossible to speak with certainty of the result before the legislature meets. There seems to be a small Whig majority in the House. On the two houses of the legislature, in convention, devolves the filling of the vacancies in the Senate. The election of Governor is to be made by the selection in the first instance by the House of Representatives of two candidates from the four who received the greatest number of the votes of the people, and from the two candidates so selected, the Senate will elect the Governor.

THE MONTHLY CHRONICLE.

DECEMBER, 1842.

ARTICLE XVI.

COMMERCE OF FRANCE AND THE UNITED STATES.

WE gave, in our last Number, a statement of the commerce between France and the United States, to the year 1840, founded on a comparison of the official reports of the governments of the two countries. We are enabled, through information just received, to add a similar statement of the commerce of the two countries in 1841.

According to the report lately published by the administration of the customs of France, of the commerce of 1841, it appears that the trade with the United States takes the first rank, in the amount both of imports and exports. Great Britain ranks next, and after it Belgium, and then the Sardinian States.

The exports from France to the United States in 1841, according to the French official statement, were valued at 121,200,000 francs, or \$23,028,000; and the imports from the United States at 121,500,000, or \$23,085,000. According to the United States' treasury statement, the imports to the United States in the year were valued at \$23,933,822; being an excess of \$905,000 over the French valuation; and the exports from the United States to France at \$21,766,755, or an amount less by \$1,318,000 than the French valuation. It should be remarked, that in these comparisons, as well as those previously given, the French statement embraces the exports from and imports to the ports of France, in the calendar year 1841, while the American embraces the exports and imports at the ports of the United States, in the year ending September 30, 1841. It will be perceived, that there is a much smaller difference between the results given in the two statements, than in those of the years before compared. It will be observed,

also, that the amounts of exports and imports in this year, very nearly balance each other.

The aggregate of imports into France from all foreign countries, in 1841, amounted to 1,121,000,000 francs, of which 804,000,000 were retained for home consumption, and 317,000,000 francs were reexported. The aggregate value of domestic products exported was 749,000,000 francs, making with the foreign products reexported, 1,066,000,000 francs, and leaving an excess of imports over exports amounting to 55,000,000 francs. This excess of imports over the exports apparently arises from the mode of valuation of the imports, which evidently embraces, in addition to the foreign cost of the merchandise imported, a part or the whole of the charges of importation.

The aggregate of the imports and exports of France in the year 1841, exceeds the amount of any former year, being 6 per cent. over the amount of 1840, and 17 per cent. over the average of the five preceding years. If the comparison be extended further back, the increase is found to be still greater. Taking three periods of five years, from 1827 to 1841, inclusive, the average commerce of the last five years exceeds that of 1827 to 1831 by 62 per cent.; and that of 1832 to 1836, by 25 per cent. These facts show a remarkable degree of prosperity in the commerce and industry of that country.

Of this commerce, including exports and imports, the amount of 631,000,000 francs was carried on by land, and 1,556,000,000 by sea. The commerce by land was with Switzerland, 172,000,000, Belgium, 141,000,000, the German Union 136,000,000, the Sardinian States 117,000,000, and Spain 11,000,000. The whole commerce with Spain, including that by sea and land, amounted to 107,000,000. Of the commerce by sea, about half was with countries in Europe, 41 per cent. with foreign countries out of Europe; 8 per cent. with French colonies, and 1 per cent., or 19,000,000, the produce of the fisheries. Of the transmarine commerce, 652,000,000 consisted of imports in French vessels, and 904,000,000 in foreign vessels. The number of ships entered and cleared was 27,243, with a tonnage of 3,092,000 tons. Of this shipping, 9,717 vessels, measuring 871,000 tons, were under the French flag, exclusive of vessels employed in the reserved trade of the French colonies and the fisheries, amounting to 334,000 tons. The foreign vessels were 9,717 in number, and measuring 18,873 tons. This shows a great disproportion in favor of foreign shipping, including even the colonial trade and fisheries, which are restricted to French vessels.

Of that portion of this commerce which is carried on with the United States, a much less proportion than any other is in French

vessels. Of the 49,700,000 in value of merchandise imported from and exported to France in 1841, \$2,946,000 in value only, or less than a sixteenth part, were in vessels of France, and the remaining fifteen-sixteenths were shipped in vessels of the United States. This statement shows, that as regards the shipping employed in the trade between this country and France, the interests of American manufactures are in a satisfactory state.

ARTICLE XVII.

THE WAR BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND CHINA.

IN one of the first Numbers of this journal, we gave a detailed, and, we believe, an accurate account of the difficulties at Canton, between the English and the Chinese authorities, which were the immediate cause of the Chinese war.* Since that time, we have published accounts of the more important events which have distinguished this contest, as they have transpired. At the present time, when we have just received the news of an arrangement which will prove the end of, at least, one of the epochs of the struggle, we propose to enter into a review of the history of it, through the three years in which it has gone on. We shall confine ourselves to a view of the events connected with the war, without going into any examination of the questions which naturally arise as to the propriety of the conduct of either party. That examination would open so wide a field, that it would be impossible for us to enter upon it at the present time.

The article on the origin of the difficulty, to which we have alluded, brought down the narrative of these transactions to the close of the year 1839. At that time the only instance of actual hostilities had been the naval engagement in the bay of Canton, between Captain Smith, commanding the British men-of-war on that station, and the Chinese fleet of junks. But as soon as the news of these transactions reached India and England, active preparations for offensive operations were made, and large forces were fitted out by the British Government in both those countries. A military force for China was gathered in India, and great additions were made to the naval and military forces in the East by reinforcements from England. An order of council was issued

* See Monthly Chronicle, Vol. I, p. 94.

by the British Government, which may be regarded as its declaration of war. It announced that satisfaction would be demanded from the Chinese Government for the late injurious proceedings of certain officers of the Emperor towards British officers and subjects ; and that, with a view to obtaining such reparation, ships, vessels, and cargoes belonging to the Emperor of China and his subjects, would be held in custody. This order was laid before Parliament on the 14th of April. A debate the week before on Sir John Graham's motion censuring the conduct of Ministers in regard to the affairs in China, had resulted in a division, in which the House of Commons sustained the Ministry by a vote of 271 to 262.

The expedition, which was immediately fitted out in England to carry into execution this order of council, was placed under the command of Sir Gordon Bremer. Captain Elliot, the British consul at Canton, and Admiral Elliot, were now appointed plenipotentiaries to conduct the important negotiations which were expected. The English expedition, together with the additions made to it in India, consisted of 17 ships of war of different classes, under the command of Admiral Elliot, and about 10,000 men of all arms. A considerable portion of it arrived in the waters of Canton about the middle of June, 1840. Up to that time, in the course of that year, no material military movements had taken place. The Chinese authorities had been engaged in strengthening the defences of Canton. They had availed themselves of their experience of the superiority of European naval architecture, and had built one or two small vessels of war on European models. The importation of British goods had been for most of the time closely prohibited, and for several weeks all foreign trade was suspended, by order of the Emperor ; circumstances which produced a great depression in the commercial interests of the East.

At Singapore, where most of the British vessels of war touched on their passage to Canton, they seized several Chinese merchant-junks, which were trading to that port, thus showing their intention to carry out, in full, the order of council of which we have spoken ; as, immediately after the expedition arrived in the waters of Canton, on the 28th of June, Sir Gordon Bremer declared the blockade of that port. He then immediately proceeded to the north with the greater portion of the squadron, leaving only a sufficient naval force to carry the blockade into effect. This force consisted of two frigates, two smaller vessels of war, and one steamer. We may here remark, that this blockade was not enforced with perfect strictness. The English residents at Macao constantly complained that junks, laden with salt and provisions, were admitted into the bay and river.

The naval squadron proceeded immediately to the island of Chusan. This island, the largest of the Chusan group, is situated in latitude 30 deg. north, near the main land, immediately opposite the estuary into which the river Tsin-Tang discharges itself. It is about 30 miles in length, and 15 broad, a fertile, well cultivated and populous island, and becomes a good military station, from its vicinity to the great cities of Ning-po, Hang-chow, [Hang-chow-foo], and the mouth of the Yang-tse-kiang, (which is known on most European maps as the river Kiang-Ku,) by which it has a short water communication with the great city, Nanking. The capital of the island, and its principal seaport, is the city of Ting-hae (Ting-hae-hëen, hëen denoting provincial city,) which is situated on the southern side.

On the 4th of August, a part of the British squadron arrived off Ting-hae, and the ships of war immediately took up a position in the harbor. The same evening, General Burrell, the brigadier in command of the land force, summoned the Chinese Admiral, who was also Governor of the Chusan group of islands, to surrender, in order to prevent bloodshed. The officers bearing the summons returned with the Chinese Admiral to the Wellesley, accompanied by two mandarins, and although they acknowledged their incapacity to resist, they attempted by evasion and requests to obtain time, and left the ship without any satisfactory result, but perfectly understanding, that if submission was not made before daylight next day, hostilities must commence.

On the next morning, accordingly, as it was evident that the Chinese intended hostilities, the troops were landed for an assault, the different works of defence reconnoitred, and some slight exchange of shots ensued. The different bodies of the English forces took up their positions with a view to commencing an active attack early the next morning. At daylight it appeared, however, that the Chinese had evacuated the city, and the English troops at once took possession. They had sustained no loss in their movements of the preceding day. The Chinese loss was estimated at about 25 men. A considerable quantity of ordnance, chiefly old and of poor construction, was taken with the works, but the Chinese showed a total ignorance of gunnery in serving their pieces. When the English forces entered the city, it appeared that almost all the inhabitants, except those of the poorest classes, had left it. These had taken advantage of the desertion of property to carry on extensive depredations, to which General Burrell put a stop as soon as possible. The English troops, in spite of the exertion of their officers, disgraced themselves by their riotous proceedings when intoxicated with *sam-shoo*, which they found in the deserted city. Accounts vary, however, as to the

extent of these disorders. Several of the Chinese merchants returned to the city, on finding that they would be well treated by the invaders.

About the same time with this attack, the frigate *Blonde* appeared off the island and town of Amoy, and sent a boat, with a communication to the governor, bearing a flag of truce. The boat was fired upon by the Chinese, and in retaliation the *Blonde* engaged with and silenced several war-junks, and took one of the forts in the harbor. To this circumstance, the subsequent civility of the Chinese officers at other points was attributed by the English. Amoy is an important seaport on a small island immediately adjacent to the main land, about half way between Macao and Chusan, and opposite to the large island of Formosa. We shall have occasion to speak of it again in the course of this narrative.

When Captain Elliot arrived at Ting-hae, as he did a day or two after it was captured, he sent to the governor of the neighboring province of Che-Keang a letter for the Emperor, explaining the grievances of the English, and demanding redress. It was believed that this letter contained a demand for compensation for the opium which had been destroyed at Canton, and for the opening of some of the northeast ports to the British. The Governor declined to send the letter formally, but an open copy of it was shown to him, the import of which, it was supposed, he would forward in his despatches. Captain Elliot immediately proclaimed a blockade of the Ning-po river, which empties into the sea opposite Chusan, and this blockade was enforced. He did not satisfy himself with the hope, that the Governor of Che-Keang would send his letter to Peking, but immediately on the arrival of Admiral Elliot, he proceeded to the mouth of the Pihho river, on which that capital was situated.

The Pihho river empties into the Gulf of Petchelee, at the head of the Yellow Sea, in about 39 deg. north latitude. That part of the squadron which sailed thither with the plenipotentiaries consisted of five men of war, one steamer, and two tenders, a force large enough to alarm, at least, the Chinese authorities. It arrived off the mouth of the Pihho on the 9th of August, and on the 11th, Captain Elliot entered the river and sent his letter, containing the demands of the British Government, to the Emperor, who was at that time at Peking, about a hundred miles from the sea, on the Pihho.* On the 27th of the month, several dignitaries appeared from court with the Emperor's answer. With these persons Captain Elliot entered into some negotiation, the result of which,

* We may here remark, that the syllable "Ho," found at the end of this and other proper names, is only a word signifying river. Hoang-Ho and Pik-Ho, therefore, simply mean the rivers Hoang and Pih. Kiang means a great river.

although no details transpired, was generally supposed to be satisfactory to him. The Emperor expressed his regret, it was said, at the difficulties which had taken place, and said that he had sent a high commissioner to Canton, who would adjust them all. To that place, accordingly, the plenipotentiary consented to remove the negotiation, and he accordingly immediately left the Gulf of Petchelee and returned to Chusan, at which place the expedition arrived in the last week of September, and rejoined the forces which had been left there. It was thought probable that the plenipotentiaries were the more willing to leave the Pihho because at that season the commencement of the northeast monsoon was to be expected, and it would have been difficult for them to receive any reënforcements.

Meanwhile, the force left at Chusan had been suffering from the effects of malaria, or of the provisions supplied to them. A large proportion of the troops were at different times rendered unfit for service, by the sickness which thus prevailed; and in the course of the summer and autumn seven or eight hundred men died. Captain Elliot did not remain long at the island, but proceeded to Macao again, to renew his task of negotiation. He arrived there on the 20th of November. On the 29th, Keshen, the newly appointed commissioner of the emperor, arrived, and the negotiations began. It has been constantly charged on Captain Elliot that the task of negotiation was one which was peculiarly grateful to him, and he seems to have entered upon it at this time with spirit. He was in the habit of paying more attention and regard to the protestations of the Chinese than did most of the English officers, and, indeed, than these protestations ever proved to deserve. At this time, however, after some concessions of trifling importance, made by the Chinese with respect to recent difficulties, and apologies for their attacks on sundry boats with flags of truce which they had lately fired upon, it became evident even to Captain Elliot, that the commissioner of the Emperor did not intend to surrender any thing of any importance toward the completion of the negotiations, or the grant of his various requisitions, and on the 6th of January, 1841, therefore, he notified the military and naval commanders, that he had suspended negotiations, and that they were at liberty to assume the offensive against the Chinese. Keshen was aware that this alternative was to be adopted at this time. Admiral Elliot had before this time resigned, ostensibly on account of ill health, and returned to India, and thence to England. His resignation left Sir Gordon Bremer in chief command of the naval part of the expedition.

Under command of this officer, the forts of Chuenpe and Tykottow, at the Bogue, were stormed on the 7th of January. On

the 8th, the vessels moved into position to attack the forts at Anunghoy; * but at this juncture, at the request of the Chinese Admiral, a truce was declared, and such representations were made, as induced Captain Elliot to consent to a renewal of the negotiation. The result of this renewal was a treaty, providing that the island of Hong Kong† should be ceded to the British; that in six years, six millions of dollars of indemnity should be paid to the British Government, in annual instalments; that there should be direct official intercourse between the two governments; and that the Chinese should reopen the Canton trade within ten days. They had previously suspended it. The treaty excited the greatest indignation against Captain Elliot among the British residents, who were greatly dissatisfied that he obtained so little, as the result of the attack, which had virtually placed Canton in his power.

Nor did the arrangement please the Chinese government better. Keshen, in his despatches to court, which were published in this journal at the time they were received in this country, put the best aspect possible on the affair. He defended his conduct in an able manner, which proved him to be a sensible and intelligent man. The Emperor, however, at once refused his assent to the treaty, censuring Keshen severely for his cowardice, and accusing him of treason. He was accordingly recalled from his station, and three commissioners appointed in his stead. [These documents may be found in Vol. II. of this journal, p. 375, et seq.] The following proclamation, published by Keshen on the 10th of January, shows the light in which he professed to regard the surrenders which he had made.

"Keshen, a great Minister of State, and Imperial High Commissioner, of the second order of the hereditary nobility, and acting governor of the two Kwang Provinces, writes this despatch for the full information of the Tangche, or Keunmingfoe, of Macao.

"The English barbarians are now obedient to orders, and, by an official document, have restored Ting-hae and Shakee, invoking me with the most earnest importunity that I should for them report, and beg for (the Imperial) favor.

"At present, all affairs are perfectly well settled. The former order, for stopping their trade and cutting off the supplies of provisions, it is unnecessary to enforce; it is for this purpose that I issue these orders to the said Tangche, that he may obey accordingly, without opposition. A special despatch."

The English did not wait for the approval of the Emperor.

* For the position of these forts, see the Map of the Harbor and Bay of Canton, Mon. Chron. Vol. I. facing p. 108.

† See Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 285.

With a view to the occupation of the island of Hong Kong, in the bay of Canton, which he had acquired by these negotiations, Captain Elliot sent orders to Chusan for the complete evacuation of that place. From some remarks in Keshen's despatches, and from a paragraph in the proclamation which we have just copied, it might be inferred that this was a provision in the treaty. This is, however, hardly probable, and there is no declaration to that effect in the various accounts of the negotiation. Keshen probably felt unwilling to complete the final arrangement of the treaty till he could receive news from Peking, and constantly procrastinated accordingly, in every possible manner. Captain Elliot's patience was at length exhausted, and on the 25th of February, after every kind of delay had been exhausted on the part of the commissioner, hostilities were recommenced, and the British fleet again moved up to the attack of the forts.

After the truce of the 9th of January, the British officers had entirely destroyed the fortifications, of which they then gained possession, with their *matériel*. The Chinese had, however, with almost incredible labor, erected new fortifications on the most important of these positions, and the chain of defences of the river would have been, therefore, a very formidable one, had they been manned by a competent soldiery. The forts destroyed on the 9th of January were only the lower ones of the general series.

The attack resulted in the capture of all these fortresses, and the advance of the British fleet to Whampoa. We published a detailed account of it in the last volume of the Chronicle, [see Vol. II. p. 312.] The British forces arrived at Whampoa on the 5th of March. It was the desire of Sir Gordon Bremer to press on at once to Canton; but the Kwang-Chow-foo, or governor of Canton, and the Hong merchants, having come down to solicit a truce, Captain Elliot agreed to a suspension of hostilities. These Chinese functionaries stated that Keshen had been degraded, but that the newly appointed commissioners had not arrived, so that there was no authorized government in the city. Under this temporary arrangement matters remained for a fortnight; but on the 16th of March, a flag of truce sent by Captain Elliot to the imperial commissioner having been fired upon, the English advanced squadron immediately proceeded to capture the remaining defences of the city, passing by the city itself, which thus lay, for the first time, under the fire of English men-of-war. At about this period two of the newly-appointed commissioners arrived, just in time to behold the success of the British arms, to sign a truce, and to sanction a temporary trade. These were Lung and Yang; their colleague, Yih, the nephew of the emperor, did not arrive till some weeks after. The credentials of these officers, and

some of their first edicts, will be found in Vol. II. p. 425 of the Chronicle. They are generally styled in the Chinese documents, Yih-shan, Lung-wan, and Yang-fang, or are spoken of as Yih, the rebel-quelling general, and Lung and Yang, the assistant great ministers of state. All these officers were degraded in rank when the news of the second attack on the forts arrived at Peking, for their dilatoriness in proceeding to the scene of action, but they were retained in their stations. At the same time that they were appointed, Ke was appointed governor of the province of Canton [Kwang-tung], and an army of fifty thousand men was ordered into service to repel the attacks of the English.

When Keshen was recalled, he was under sentence of capital punishment for inefficiency; but this sentence was subsequently remitted. In the intercourse which he had with the English, he proved himself an intelligent man, and a faithful and vigorous officer. It was not singular, that in the very embarrassing and difficult position in which he was placed, he failed to meet the expectations of his imperial master.

The new commissioners, as we have seen, had no alternative presented to them by the condition of affairs when they arrived at Canton. They were obliged to sanction an opening of the trade, and to preserve the armistice which was insisted upon. They did preserve it, so far as it required abstinence from offensive operations; but the army ordered to Canton by the emperor gathered round the city without any great attempt at concealment. Meanwhile, the English troops, who had been recalled from Chusan, had gathered at Tsing-hae, below Canton. In the end of March, Sir Gordon Bremer left Canton for Calcutta, with the intention, it was said, of bringing more reinforcements from India.

The truce only lasted through the month of April, and a part of May. At the end of that time, Captain Elliot, satisfied, as he said, that vigorous preparations for war were still carried on by the Chinese, once more ordered offensive operations. On the 21st of May, the Chinese attacked some of his vessels, and on the 24th and 25th of May, the English troops, who had been previously brought up the river, were landed, attacked the Chinese without the city, broke up the intrenched camp of the Chinese army, and took such positions as entirely commanded the city itself, so that it could have been stormed with little difficulty or loss. Sir Hugh Gough, who was in command of the forces, intended to storm the city on the 27th, but to his great mortification, as we learn from his own despatches, he was on that morning obliged, by directions from Captain Elliot, to countermand the attack. The plenipotentiary had agreed upon another suspension of hostilities. The conditions of this agreement for the ransom of

the city, as it was called, were the evacuation of the city by its garrison, who with the three commissioners were to retire sixty miles; the immediate payment of six millions of dollars, and the losses occasioned to British and other merchants by the recent proceedings of the Chinese. To this treaty the Chinese functionaries adhered, and the terms of it having been executed, the English performed their part, and withdrew their forces. Full details of all these operations and negotiations were published in the Chronicle of last year, (Vol. II. p. 470.)

In the report which Yih-shan made of this treaty to the emperor, the greater part of which was also published in the Chronicle for last October, the transaction was represented as a defeat indeed, but as a somewhat trifling affair, which had left the officers of the celestial empire in no very unfavorable position. He acknowledged that he was beaten, but began by giving an account of a successful attack made by his troops in the outset,* and then accounted for his subsequent disaster by the fatigue of his soldiers, the deficiency of his artillery, and the unexpected arrival of British reinforcements from below. In speaking of his concessions to the barbarians he professed that he only yielded *temporarily* in order to save the town, to free the river from the enemy's shipping, to repair his fortifications, and so arrange his forces, that he should be better able to attack the enemy on some other occasion. With some political skill, he closed his report by an allusion to Keshen's cession of Hong Kong, and his hope to wipe off this stain on the honor of the celestial dynasty, by purifying its territory from the contamination of strangers. To the removal of the Tartar troops, (for such must the Chinese army properly be called,) we find no allusion in this proclamation. The payment of the ransom of six millions of dollars is spoken of as a trifling affair, as indeed to the Chinese authorities it was. The whole sum was in effect wrung out of the Hong merchants. They furnished near-

* The different accounts of this first action, given by the English Admiral and the Chinese General, differ curiously. Yih-shan, "the emperor's nephew and commissioner," says: "On the evening of the first day of the fourth moon, (21st of May,) the great conflict with the barbarians commenced at the western fort. We attacked them with our guns, and succeeded in burning instantly five of their boats, breaking two of their guns, and carrying away the mainmasts of the barbarian ships. They were now all returning, when your Minister, at the fifth watch, (3 o'clock to 5 A.M.), was upon the point of bringing up his soldiers for their extermination; but all on a sudden the number of their vessels was increased by sixteen ships, eight devilships, (steamboats,) and eighty ship's boats, which all pressed forward," &c. Sir Le Fleming Senhouse, the British Admiral, says: "No overt act of hostility had taken place up to the 21st of May, except remounting the guns of the Shamien battery: but the Chinese appear to have been perfectly ready for attack. All remained quiet in the river until about 11 o'clock, P.M., when an attempt was made with fire rafts to burn the advanced vessels. This attack not only totally failed, but was followed up by a gallant attack on the Shamien battery, and the silencing of it," &c.

ly half of it immediately, and then requested the kwang-chow-foo to *lend* them the remainder from the treasury of the province. This he did; but it was on their entering into obligations to repay it in four years. Throughout this period, also, the import and export duties affecting the foreign trade were at their highest standard, and the price of teas was singularly high. To the Chinese government, therefore, this payment was a matter of very little difficulty, and in point of fact, the commissioners had succeeded in freeing the town from the presence of the enemy at little or no cost, although their arms were totally defeated. The reply of the emperor sanctioned the arrangements made, and involved no censure of the commissioners.

Captain Elliot's conduct in this negotiation was severely censured by the English military and naval officers, and, indeed, by the residents generally. He had been recalled before this time, but the intelligence of his recall had not yet reached Canton. The military officers, as we have seen, were particularly angry that he should have robbed them of the glory of the storm of the city. General Gough says, in his despatch, in speaking of Captain Elliot's request to him to suspend the attack on the 27th of May; "Whatever might be my sentiments, it was my duty to acquiesce. The attack, which was to have commenced in forty-five minutes, was countermanded, and the feelings of the Chinese were spared. Of the policy of the measure I do not consider myself a competent judge; but I say 'feelings,' as I would have been responsible that Canton should be equally spared, with the exception of its defences, and that not a soldier should have entered the town further than the fortified heights within its walls." It is easy to see, however, that Captain Elliot's sentiments on the subject ought to have been very different from those of a mere military officer. He was, indeed, throughout his charge, placed in a very delicate, not to say a false, position.

The real object of the British government in the Chinese war, was to obtain satisfaction for the wrongs its merchants had received, and to make a new opening, if it could, for British trade and manufactures. It did not wish, of course, to destroy, at a blow, all the existing trade, and to ruin at once all these merchants, whose cause it was so zealously defending. It was obliged, therefore, during a period when it was levying war with its full power upon China, to do all that it could at the same time to preserve its Chinese trade. This was a difficult attempt. As war has usually been conducted, the very statement of it would have been considered a perfect paradox. Yet the plenipotentiary was constantly compelled to keep both these interests in mind; he was to injure as much as he could China and the Chinese

commerce, coasting and foreign, and yet he was to foster and preserve, as he could, the British merchants and the British trade. This necessarily involved him in contradictions. We find the same man, now declaring the blockade of Canton, now making it the first condition of a truce, that the Chinese authorities should open the trade, and immediately after threatening an embargo on the port. But these contradictions are not surprising; the wonder rather is, that the plenipotentiary was not involved in greater ones. In the particular case before us, his conduct seems to be sustained by strong considerations. "In a word," says an intelligent French writer, who was an eye-witness of most of these proceedings, "Captain Elliot could not but see that a town of a million of souls, filled with a population which only waited for a signal to begin to pillage it, with an army of thirty thousand Tartars in the neighborhood, could not be occupied by an opposing army without acts of violence. These would have closed for a long time the avenues to all commercial transactions. Such a course, on the part of the plenipotentiary, would have been destroying with his own hands the seat of his own present, and probably future commercial operations. The attempts which had been made during the occupation of Chusan to draw the Chinese merchants there, had proved, that all immediate trade on that side was impossible, and that it was only at Canton, that it was to be hoped that the Chinese would lay aside their national hatred. The city of Canton, moreover, whatever might be its real importance, was so far removed from the heart of the empire, that the blow which destroyed it could not produce any decisive change in the warlike spirit expressed at Peking. The emperor had already blamed Keshen for entering into negotiations with the barbarians in the fear that Canton would be destroyed.

"In taking possession of Canton, too, the English plenipotentiary would have surrendered all means of ultimate action. It would have required three or four thousand of his troops, at least, making all proper allowance even for Chinese cowardice, to keep the city without exposing it to the danger of a sudden attack. To burn and pillage it would have been not only an impolitic act, as I have just said, but an act of barbarity, of which no English agent could have been capable.

"Captain Elliot only did, therefore, at this time, what necessity imposed upon him; he was faithful to the line of conduct which was imposed upon him. He had tried to keep the port of Canton open to the English commerce; satisfied with attaining this end, he would not probably have thought of recommencing hostilities in the river of Canton, if the Chinese had not seen fit to show him, that though their hate might slumber, it could not be extinguished. After having inflicted on them the chastisement, which their aggression seemed to require, it became neces-

sary to return to the old state of things ; that is, to try to renew commercial relations, even while preparing new acts of hostility."

As it was, although the trade was nominally reöpened after the treaty, it proceeded with languor, owing to the want of confidence in the Chinese dealers, and the fear of the people in the interior to approach the city. The authorities, and the emperor even, published edicts, with a view to reässure the dealers, but without any marked success. All transactions with the Hong merchants had to be conducted with money ; they were not willing to receive goods of any kind. The mercantile interest was a good deal depressed, therefore, and felt authorized to complain because the treaty secured to them no commercial advantages. Captain Elliot began the laying out of a town at Hong-Kong, and sold lots to the merchants, who began to build there. The foundation of an establishment here seems to have been always a favorite project with him.

Excepting the death of Sir H. Le Fleming Senhouse, on the 14th of June, nothing of importance transpired until the return of Sir Gordon Bremer from Calcutta, on the 18th. The Chinese were immediately notified that he had been appointed joint commissioner with Captain Elliot, but, except the publication of some unimportant edicts, nothing was done by any party for some weeks. On the 16th of July, the Chinese authorities published an edict, formally reöpening all trade on its ancient basis. This was done at the especial command of the emperor, and they probably hoped that the troubles were now over.

In the beginning of the month of August, the news arrived that Captain Elliot and Sir Gordon Bremer were recalled by the home government, and Sir Henry Pottinger and Sir William Parker appointed to fill their places. These changes had been ordered in England on the receipt there of the news of Captain Elliot's preliminary treaty with Keshen. The new officers arrived on the 9th, and Sir Henry Pottinger at once published his credentials, which authorized him to "negotiate and conclude with the minister vested with similar power and authority on the part of the emperor of China, any treaty or agreement for the arrangement of the differences now subsisting between Great Britain and China." On the 12th, the plenipotentiary published a notification, in which he distinctly stated, that, although he was desirous to promote the wishes, prosperity, well-being and security of the English and other foreign residents, it was "his intention to devote his undivided energies and thoughts to the primary object of securing a speedy and satisfactory close of the war ;" and he therefore could "allow no consideration connected with mercantile pursuits and other interests to interfere with the strong measures which he

might find it necessary to authorize and adopt." He closed by saying, that he had intimated to the Chinese, that although he should respect the existing truce, so far as the province of Canton was concerned, the slightest infraction of its terms on their part would lead to open hostilities on his. He added, that with his knowledge of their bad faith, he thought an infraction highly probable. In accordance with the terms of the treaty of May, the imperial commissioners had all left Canton. The kwang-chow-foo, however, arrived at Macao, desirous to treat with the new plenipotentiary. Sir Henry sent to him his Secretary, but no arrangement was effected of any kind; and on the 21st of August, the greater part of the British forces left Hong-Kong for an expedition to the north. The squadron consisted of nine men-of-war, four steamers, and twenty-two transports. About four thousand troops were embarked with it. Seven vessels of war were left at Canton, under command of Captain Nyas; and seven or eight hundred men were left in garrison at Hong-Kong. The diseases incident to the climate had already begun to produce a bad effect among the troops.

The first operation of the invading force was the attack of the town of Amoy (Hea-moun); of which we have already spoken. It is an important commercial post, containing about 70,000 inhabitants. An account of the attack and capture of this city, which took place on the 26th of August, will be found on pp. 40 and 89 of the current volume of the Chronicle. The batteries were strong, and although the Chinese gunnery was wretchedly bad, they would never have been taken, had not their defective arrangement permitted the forces to land and take them by assault in the rear. A new cannon-foundry was found at Amoy, where they had recently cast thirty or forty brass cannon, and as many iron ones. Every thing was prepared on a very large scale for the casting of ordnance; it was curious indeed, to see how the Chinese talent for imitation had already produced its legitimate immediate results; the artillery found in Amoy was much superior to that which was found mounted in the defences of Canton. The Chinese had made singular progress in the course of a few months past. Indeed, if the want of *matériel* were the only difficulty experienced by the Chinese generals, Chinese ingenuity and skill would soon have supplied it. Unfortunately it could not, in the short time left to it, make of the Chinese people a nation of warriors. Here is the difficulty, so far as appears, which rendered nugatory all the exertions made by the officers of the celestial empire against the barbarians. In spite of the immense population of China, the formation of an army, every where a difficult matter, is in that empire more so than any where else. The Chi-

nese nation, although perfectly well organized for time of peace, is extremely ill ordered for war. In China, there is nothing resembling a conscription. The army is recruited from a certain number of families, destined from time immemorial to supply the country with soldiers. It is a hereditary occupation, like all occupations among the Chinese. Until the late events occurred, the privilege of being among the military families was very much valued; for on a soil which furnishes such a scanty supply of food for its inhabitants, it is considered no small favor to obtain a certain fixed support. A Chinese soldier receives about four dollars per month; this is a considerable sum in China, and enables him to support himself and family. The soldier's occupation, therefore, is not a despicable one. The soldier remains almost always in his village, happy and tranquil; he is born, so to speak, and dies, in a livery which secures to him a long and quiet life. But since the barbarians have arrived in China, no longer as supplicants, but as enemies; since English bullets have rendered the profession more dangerous, the uniform of the tiger is not so desirable a badge. And we may find in this method of recruiting the army the origin of its effeminate and cowardly behavior.

The British forces remained but three days in Amoy. They destroyed the works and cannon, and then left the city for the north. A force of four hundred men was left at Kolangroo, a small island which commanded the town and harbor. The evacuation, however, took off much of the effect of the victory, for the mandarins returned as soon as they found that the enemy had left, and declared to their government that they had delivered the city by force of arms, after a great carnage of barbarians. The expedition at once proceeded to Tinghae, in Chusan, where it assembled at the close of September. The works had been rebuilt since the English forces had left it, but they were easily recaptured, and possession was resumed on the 1st of October. The forces, having been re-collected, proceeded to the attack of Chinhae, the port of the important city of Ningpo. Chinhae is but about thirty miles from Tinghae. It is situated on the main land at the mouth of the small river Tahea, on which Ningpo stands, about twelve miles above it. It was strongly fortified, and contained a large garrison, but was taken by storm by the English with little loss on the 10th. On the 13th, they moved up to Ningpo, which was found deserted by its troops, and was at once occupied by the victorious forces. Particulars of all these transactions were published in the third Number of the Chronicle of this year, (p. 135.)

At Ningpo, the British took up their winter quarters, and one or two attacks on depots of provisions in neighboring cities, were the only warlike events which transpired for some months. In all

these cases the provisions were distributed among the common people. The soldiers throughout these operations had been kept in good discipline; the only outrages which occurred, were the robberies committed by the Chinese vagrants on the deserted towns before the British troops could arrive. On the 10th of March, hostilities were recommenced by an attack by the Chinese on the forces in the two cities of Ningpo and Chinhae. These attacks were repelled, with great loss, (see *Mon. Chron.* Vol. III. p. 330.) This attack was under the direction of Yih-King. His forces retreated in great disorder, forty or fifty miles. Some attempts to cut off the provisions of Ningpo were followed by a movement of the British on the city Tseekee, where was a grain depot, which was stormed, with the loss of five or six hundred men, from a garrison of eight or ten thousand.

On the 7th of May, the British troops evacuated Ningpo, and leaving but 150 men at Chinhae, the commanders reëmbarked, and proceeded on their expedition to the north. Almost all their forces were withdrawn from Chusan at the same time. Having assembled off Chusan, the squadron sailed to Cha-poo, an important commercial emporium, about forty miles from Chinhae, on the other side of the estuary, into which the Tsin-tang empties. Cha-poo is the seat of the Japan trade of China, and has a pretty good harbor. The Portuguese were formerly permitted to trade there. The squadron arrived off the town on the 11th of May, and boats were immediately sent out to take soundings of the harbor and bar. The Chinese authorities sent a proposal to surrender some English prisoners in their possession as a ransom of the town, but this offer was, of course, refused. On the 13th, it was attacked by the squadron, and taken by the troops, who were landed after a somewhat more vigorous defence than had usually been made. The troops did not stay here long, but proceeded to one of the mouths of the great river Yang-tze, (Yang-tze-Kiang, the Kian-ku of our maps,) which it was proposed to enter. This river is the great artery of the empire; with it the great canals, and indeed all the means of internal communication are connected. The city of Nankin is situated about a hundred miles from its mouth. The following account of the operations at its mouth is extracted from the despatches of the plenipotentiary.

"After the necessary delay in destroying the batteries, magazines, foundries, barracks, and other public buildings, as well as the ordnance, arms, and ammunition captured at Cha-poo, the troops were reëmbarked, and the expedition finally quitted that port on the 23d of May, and arrived on the 29th off the Ragged islands, where it remained until the 13th of June, on which day it crossed the bar, which had been previously surveyed and buoyed off, into the Yang-tze-Kiang, to the point where the

river is joined by the Woosung. At this point the Chinese authorities had erected immense lines of works to defend the entrances of both rivers, and seem to have been so confident of their ability to repel us, that they permitted a very close *reconnaissance* to be made, in two of the small steamers, by their Excellencies the Naval and Military Commanders-in-Chief, on the 14th inst.; and even cheered and encouraged the boats which were sent in the same night to guide the ships of war to their allotted positions of attack. At daylight on the morning of the 16th, the squadron weighed anchor, and proceeded to take up their respective stations, which was scarcely done when the batteries opened, and the cannonade on both sides was extremely heavy and unceasing for about two hours; that of the Chinese then began to slacken, and the seamen and marines were landed at once under the fire from the ships, and drove the enemy out of the batteries before the troops could be disembarked and formed for advancing. Two hundred and fifty-three guns were taken in the batteries, (forty-two of them brass,) most of them of heavy calibre, and upwards of eleven feet long. The loss of the English forces is two killed and twenty-five wounded. The loss of the Chinese is eighty killed, and a proportionate number wounded."

Subsequently, expeditions were sent up the river Woosung, fifty miles above the city of Shanghae; in these movements, several more cannon were taken, making the whole amount of ordnance captured 364, of which 26 are of brass. Shanghae is said to be a fine city, more remarkable than Ningpo. It is perhaps, according to Mr. Gutzlaff, the largest emporium of the empire.

On the 6th of July, the expedition left Woosung to proceed further up the Yang-tze-Keang. On the 20th, it had arrived with little opposition opposite the large town of Chin-Keang-foo, which commands the entrance of the Grand Canal. The next morning the troops were disembarked, and marched to the attack of the Chinese forces. One brigade was directed to move against the enemy's camp, situated about three miles distant, where from 1,500 to 3,000 men, it was reported, were assembled; another was ordered to coöperate with this division in cutting off the expected retreat of the Chinese from the camp to the city; while the third received instructions to escalate the northern wall of the town. The Chinese, after firing a few distant volleys, fled from the camp with precipitation, and dispersed over the country. The city itself, however, was manfully defended by the Tartar soldiers, who prolonged the contest for several hours, resisting with desperate valor the combined efforts of the three brigades, aided by a reënforcement of marines and seamen. At length, opposition ceased, and before night the English were complete masters of the place. Chin-Keang-foo, like Amoy, was most strongly fortified, and the works in excellent repair. It is supposed the garrison consisted of not less than 3,000 men, and of these about 1,000, and 40 man-

darins, were killed and wounded. "The Tartar General," says Sir H. Pottinger, "retired to his house when he saw all was lost, made his servants set it on fire, and sat in his chair till he was burned to death. His secretary was found, the day after the assault, hidden in a garden; and on his being carried to the spot, recognized the half-consumed remains of his master, who was worthy of such a death."

The English loss was heavier than it had ever been in any of the encounters of the war; 169 men were killed and wounded.

Leaving a strong garrison for the protection of Chin-Keang-foo, the fleet proceeded towards Nankin, which was about forty miles distant, and arrived on the 6th of August, when preparations were immediately made for an attack on the city. A strong force, under the command of Major-General Lord Saltoun, was landed, and took up their position to the west of the town; and operations were about to be commenced, when a letter was sent off to the plenipotentiary, requesting a truce, as certain high commissioners, specially delegated by the emperor, and possessed of full powers to negotiate, were on their way from Peking. The attack was consequently deferred, but the commissioners did not arrive till the 15th. Their names and rank are thus given:

1. Kee Ying, of the Royal Family, and Commander-in-Chief of the Tartar troops in Kuang Sung.
2. Eleepoo, Lieutenant-General of Chapoo, formerly Governor of Che-keang, but degraded for liberating the prisoners in 1841.
3. Gnu, General of the two provinces, Keeang-soo and Keeang-see.

After some discussion, Sir Henry Pottinger agreed to a treaty with these commissioners, the basis of which will be found in the following circular, issued by him.

CIRCULAR.

To Her Britannic Majesty's Subjects in China.

Her Britannic Majesty's Plenipotentiary, &c. in China has extreme gratification in announcing to Her Majesty's subjects in China, that he has this day concluded and signed with the Chinese High Commissioners, deputed to negotiate with him, a treaty, of which the following are the most important provisions:

1. Lasting Peace and Friendship between the two empires.
2. China to pay twenty-one millions of dollars in the course of the present and three succeeding years.
3. The ports of Canton, Amoy, Foo-choo-foo, Ningpo, and Shanghai to be thrown open to British merchants, consular officers to be appointed to reside at them, and regular and just tariffs of import and export, (as well as inland transit,) duties to be established and published.
4. The island of Hong-Kong to be ceded in perpetuity to her Britannic Majesty, her heirs and successors.

5. All subjects of her Britannic Majesty, (whether natives of Europe or India,) who may be confined in any part of the Chinese empire, to be unconditionally released.

6. An act of full and entire amnesty to be published by the emperor under his Imperial sign manual and seal to all Chinese subjects, on account of their having held service or intercourse with or resided under the British Government, or its officers.

7. Correspondence to be conducted on terms of perfect equality amongst the officers of both Governments.

8. On the emperor's assent being received to this treaty, and the payment of the first 6,000,000 dollars, her Britannic Majesty's forces to retire from Nanking and the Grand Canal, and the military posts at Chinhae to be also withdrawn, but the islands of Chusan and Kolangsoo are to be held until the money payments and the arrangements for opening the ports be completed.

In promulgating this highly satisfactory intelligence, her Majesty's plenipotentiary, &c. purposely refrains from any detailed expressions of his own sentiments as to the surpassing skill, energy, devotion, and valor which have distinguished the various grades, from the highest to the lowest, of all arms of her Majesty's combined forces, during the contest that has led to these momentous results. The claims which have been thus established will be, doubtless, acknowledged by the highest authorities. In the meantime, her Majesty's plenipotentiary congratulates her Majesty's subjects in China on the occasion of a peace, which, he trusts and believes, will, in due time, be equally beneficial to the subjects and interests of both England and China.

GOD SAVE THE QUEEN!

Dated on board the steam frigate *Queen*, in the Yang-tze-Keang river, off Nanking, this 29th day of August, 1842.

(Signed)

HENRY POTTINGER,
Her Majesty's Plenipotentiary.

It will be seen, that nothing is said in this treaty respecting the opium trade. It is stated in private letters from Nankin, that the commissioners desired to have a clause introduced respecting it, but that Sir Henry Pottinger declined; saying that the Chinese government must regulate this matter as it could with its own subjects. When the *Sesostris* steam-frigate, which brought this intelligence, left Nankin, the greater part of the first instalment of the ransom money was collected and ready for payment. When it was paid, the expedition was to return to Chusan. The ratification of the treaty by the emperor was received and forwarded September 16. If the Chinese authorities adhere, in good faith, to the treaty, and permit the trade to the ceded ports without obstructing it by local prohibitions and difficulties, they will be acquisitions of great value to the British. With most of them, however, they formerly had the liberty of trading; but the local exactions and vexations were such as to drive their commerce

entirely away. It was not till this had taken place that it was formally prohibited by the emperor in the year 1757. We have already spoken of Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai; Foo-choo, or Fu-tchieu, (Foo-choo-foo,) is situated on the coast, about fifty miles north of Amoy. It is in the immediate vicinity of the tea-district, and will prove the principal emporium of the tea-trade.

In the course of this expedition, Sir Henry Pottinger issued a long proclamation in the Chinese language, couched as far as possible in the Chinese style of such documents, stating the grievances for which the British government made war. The document, like others of a similar character issued by Captain Elliot, was intended to throw the whole blame of the transaction on the Chinese ministers, who were charged with deceiving the emperor, and it was hoped, probably, that the people might be themselves excited against the proceedings of the officials and army. There is no evidence whatever, that any of these proclamations produced any of the desired effect. On the other hand, the people seem to have remained loyal to their government, and to have preserved constantly their constitutional detestation of the barbarians. Even in the captured towns, it was found impossible to carry on any mercantile transactions of importance. It remains to be seen, whether the passage of time will serve to wear away these prejudices in the ports which have now been ceded to the conquerors.

M I S C E L L A N Y .

PROGRESS OF CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT IN PRUSSIA.

ONE of the most interesting events of the present day, is the establishment of a sort of National Representative Assembly for the Kingdom of Prussia, under the name of a meeting of committees of the provincial states. We propose here to give some account of the opening, and the proceedings of this Assembly. We shall confine our account of these proceedings chiefly to such as we find stated either in official, or semi-official publications, or resting on entirely satisfactory authority. The opening of the Assembly is thus described in the Prussian State Gazette, published at Berlin, of October 19:

"All the members of the committees of the provincial states having arrived at Berlin on the 17th, the solemn opening of the session took

place on the 18th in the hall of the palace assigned by the King for that purpose. As soon as the members of the Assembly had taken their places, a deputation, composed of several members, waited on the Ministers of State, to apprise them that the members had assembled at the palace. Count Arnim, Minister of the Interior, then proceeded to the palace, and opened the session with the following speech :

"Princes and Gentlemen : His Majesty has appointed me to open the session of the committees of the states, conformable to the Cabinet order of the 19th of August last. Two years have elapsed since you assembled round the throne at the King's invitation, to renew solemnly, in the venerated capital of ancient Prussia, and in this same place, the bonds of the King's love, and of the unalterable fidelity of his subjects. You have responded to this appeal joyfully, and there is no one amongst us who has not preserved the most lively recollection of those days when the legitimate Sovereign addressed his faithful people, and united them by the indissoluble bonds of love and of respect. He has at present again summoned the representatives of the provinces, and they have again cheerfully assembled round the steps of the throne. The unanimity with which Prussia, at the moment of taking the oath of allegiance, repeated to its King the sacramental affirmation, the long and loud echo of which was heard in the most remote provinces of the kingdom, that unanimity which, with the Divine assistance, has so materially contributed to the maintenance of peace,—that same unity forms the element of your present meeting. The provinces of Prussia are united in their love for the King, whenever it may be necessary to protect the national independence. The King confidently expects, that the same unanimity will attend the deliberations of this assembly at a time when his sagacious will, through pure Royal grace, has carried into effect this important complement of the institution of the states, by assembling the several councils. On those points where the opinions of the provincial states are divided, the session of the committees will unite and conciliate them. Whenever it shall be necessary to determine what are the wants of the country, the committees will point them out. Whenever it may be necessary for the King's Government to consult the states on questions of administration by means of an organ, the committees shall be the medium. No doubt, different opinions will be displayed in this assembly, and they will no doubt be debated with force and conviction, and the general good requires that it should be so. But, whenever such a difference of opinion arises, this fraternal contest should be conducted with a view to the general welfare of Prussia, which is common to all, and with a recollection that we are assembled here as members of the same body politic, as faithful subjects of the same King. On this, the first day of your assembling, the King's will has, from the height of the throne, offered you with full liberty a gift of the most noble confidence. For that reason, this day will be ever remarkable as the most glorious of the reign of Frederick William IV. It will likewise be remarked in the annals of Prussia as one of the most happy. It will be a day of joyous recollection for the King, who has given it to us, and it will afford a flattering pledge to those, who by the confidence of the King and that of

their provinces, have been for the first time invited to assemble round him. We have a sure guarantee of this in the tried zeal with which you will devote yourself to the accomplishment of your commission as faithful and conscientious subjects in the sacrifice of your private interests whenever the public good shall require it, and by the unanimity of your resolutions. A vast field is opened to you ; may it, by your honest zeal, and the Divine benediction, produce happy fruits."

After the Prince of Solms, as Marshal of the committees, replied in suitable terms, the chamber resounded with cries of "Long live the King." The assembly then adjourned until the 21st.

With a view of explaining, in some degree, the character of this assembly, and the object of the King of Prussia in establishing it, we copy the following remarks from a London journal, firmly devoted to the support of a monarchical form of government :

"The coming constitution of Prussia is a subject which must be looked to throughout Europe as one of the most interesting political facts of the day. Taking men as they are, it is entirely visionary to suppose, that those who can, and who know that they can, at any moment, extort a share in the supreme administration of the state, will not, sooner or later, proceed to do so ; and the Prussian policy, by at once turning the entire nation into one standing army, and diffusing through that whole mass a healthy or unhealthy intelligence, including, of course, a knowledge of their own power ; the capability to unite effectually for a given object, and a confidence in their own capacity for government, has, of course, decided with whom the power of that country shall *ultimately* rest. The force, indeed, which has been created, has not yet shown itself ; nor will it do so, as long as the country is administered by a deservedly popular sovereign, and according to the national will. But these are conditions which never can be fulfilled for many generations together. An age must come of bad governors or unruly subjects ; of real or of fancied grievance, and then the effective physical force,—effective, whether from number, combination, courage, or energy,—effective physical force, we say, whether by demonstration or by act ; whether by right or by wrong ; whether by convulsion or by encroachment, will unfailingly take what it can. Real *must*, sooner or later, become constitutional power ; *must* assert and legalize itself ; and the long-sighted statesman, if he wishes to avoid a convulsion, must take measures either for checking its growth, or forestalling its demands.

"The Prussian Government adopts the latter alternative. The monarch of that kingdom is gradually investing his people with that influence which their position as an intelligent standing army,—we do not say entitled them to,—but invited and enabled them to appropriate. He hopes peaceably to anticipate those conflicts for power, through which a body which he and his father have informed and organized would in the days of his son or his grandson have infallibly risen to power. The operation is a delicate, and must be a long one. To a political observer it carries all the excitement of an experiment, and all the deep interest of a massive fact of history. It may, indeed, prove abortive or mischievous. It may happen, that the growing constitution may turn out to be all fire

or all smoke: the latter, if it attempts to impose upon a people a mode of self-government which is not the natural expression of their habits and desires; the former, if it furnishes vent and fuel to a popular ambition, hitherto happily latent. We anticipate, at any rate for the present, neither the one nor the other result. The active mind of the Germans, unpractical though it be, will scarcely allow that any opportunity of assembling for the free communication of political ideas should prove a nullity. With whatever paper forms it may be entangled, the fact of this communication and discussion remains, and must form the germ of important movements. The popularity of the King; the anti-Gallican, (and therein anti-republican,) feeling which pervades his country; the fact that this concession is made from strength, and not from weakness, and the practical qualifications by which it is accompanied, — all preclude the notion of present danger to the existing order of things. The remote future, of course, depends in a great measure upon itself."

After some proceedings of no great interest, the Minister of Finance made a communication to the committees, in which are contained the following statement:

"The annual estimates relative to revenue and expenditure, which, according to the existing regulation, are to be published every three years, are made up from the special estimates of the several departments. These special estimates, of which annually about the third part, and each time for a period of three years, is made up afresh, are mainly based upon average calculations of the results of the several administrations during the three years preceding the former term, so that the main estimates of every year are based upon the result of a six years' experience. . . .

"The estimates prepared upon this principle of the current revenue and expenditure for the year 1841, show a surplus of \$2,136,000, [1,410,000 American dollars.] Of these, \$1,000,000 will be required to cover deficiencies in the revenue, and some extraordinary expenses, and \$350,000 for gifts of various kinds made by the Crown. In the last named item are included the sums constantly given by the King towards the erection of schools and churches. There will then remain, for the year 1841, a real surplus of only \$786,000 to augment the reserved fund of the state.

"For the year 1842, the returns show a surplus of \$3,097,000, which, after allowing for similar deductions, will leave a net surplus of \$1,747,000 for the augmentation of the reserved fund.

"The material increase, as compared with the net surplus of 1841, is owing to the circumstance that the latter is based on the administrative results of the six years 1835 – 1840, of which the first, in consequence of the Customs' League having just before come into force, experienced an important decrease in the revenue derived from the customs, a decrease which operates unfavorably upon the average calculation.

"For the year 1843 the estimates have not yet been made up, but it may already be assumed, that, partly by the operation of the sinking fund, and partly in consequence of the reduction lately effected in the interest on the public debt, there will be a reduction of \$1,200,000 in

the expenditure for 1843. Add this amount to the estimated surplus of 1842, and there will be a net surplus of \$2,947,000 to be anticipated for the year 1843, which, even after the proposed reduction of taxes to the extent of \$2,000,000, will still leave a net surplus of \$900,000. It is true, that several extraordinary expenses will be required in 1843, and, as has already been intimated to the states, the produce of the lottery will probably show a diminution of \$60,000. These contingencies, however, it may reasonably be anticipated, will be compensated by an increased consumption consequent on the said reduction of taxes, in which case a net surplus of \$900,000 will still remain for the year 1843."

The committees were entirely occupied in their sittings of October 22 and 23, in the consideration of the great system of railroads proposed to be executed under the guarantee of the Government, of a certain dividend on the capital invested. The Minister of Finance, in a speech, developed the plan of the Government, and pointed out the great advantages which Prussia, more, perhaps, than any other country, might anticipate from the realization of this extensive system of railroads. The disadvantages of her geographical position, he said, would in a great measure be remedied, while the facility given to internal communication would act as a material protection to domestic industry against foreign competition.

The members were then successively called upon to express their opinions, and though for the general principle of the proposition there was all but unanimity, yet a number of doubts and hesitations arose as to the details of the plan. Several members, while they admitted the importance of railroads, insisted upon it that the improvement of the common roads was a matter of at least equal moment. Some were for giving greater extension to the proposed plan, others for confining it within narrower limits. By some it was questioned whether the establishment of a railroad in the province of Posen was at all to be wished for. Several members also expressed their belief, that on many of the proposed railroads the income would be very inadequate, and the government would in consequence have to incur, with respect to those railroads, a permanent outlay.

The great majority of the assembly, however, were zealous in advocating the general advantages to be looked for from a comprehensive system such as had been proposed, and urged the danger in which Prussia would be placed if she allowed other nations to get the start of her in the march of improvement. Among other advantages to be anticipated would be this, that with a good system of railroads, the whole monarchy of Prussia would be supplied with salt from the provinces of Saxony and Westphalia, whereas at present several of the more distant provinces stood indebted for their supply to foreign countries.

The Presiding Minister declared that the opinion of government coincided entirely with that of the members who had advocated the equal importance of the more ordinary means of internal communication. Indeed, the experience of other countries showed that the establishment of railroads did not tend to diminish the traffic on roads running parallel

with them, while on those roads leading to railroads the traffic had greatly increased. In support of this view, reference was made by one member to the astonishing increase in the navigation on the Elbe, between Hamburg and Magdeburg, since the opening of the railroads between the latter city and Leipsic, Dresden, and Berlin.

The discussion having been exhausted, the Presiding Minister summed up the debate, and, in conclusion, demanded from the assembly an answer to the following question :

"Is the execution of a system of railroads, to connect the centre of the Prussian monarchy with the provinces, and these with one another, and which at the same time, in its main lines, shall communicate with foreign countries, looked upon as an urgent necessity?"

The ninety-eight members present were then each in succession called on to answer "yes" or "no" to this question, when there appeared ninety ayes and eight noes.

At the sitting of the committees of states on the 27th ult., the attention of the members was directed to the consideration of the question, whether the state should guaranty the interest on the capital to be expended in the construction of the contemplated system of railroads.

The question submitted to the assembly was —

"Whether they deemed it necessary and expedient that the state should endeavor to bring about the construction of the system of railroads, already admitted to be necessary, by guarantying the interest on the capital to be expended?"

Several members urged, that all the advantages anticipated could be realized only in case the state would itself undertake the construction. A motion to that effect, however, the Minister of Finance, who presided, would not allow to be put, declaring,

"That the government had come to a determination, for the present, (*für jetzt und für die nächste Zukunft*,) not to construct railroads at the cost of the state, and that the King had not authorized him to consult the states on this subject."

On the other hand, the Minister made no objection to putting the question —

"Whether it was the wish of the Assembly that the opinion referred to should be entered on the minutes, in order that in that way the views of the members might be brought under the notice of his Majesty?"

There were not wanting many members, who declared themselves altogether against the construction of railroads by the state, as likely to encumber the state with a large additional debt, whereas, by throwing open the works to public competition, a large amount of foreign capital would be drawn into the country. It was quite as easy to obtain security for the execution of the works from private companies, as from the state, since the government, in guarantying the interest on the capital, would be in a position to insist on the necessary guarantee from the companies. The same argument would apply to the personal security of the travellers.

The Minister was again urged to allow the question on this point to be put in a more distinct manner, but to this he refused his assent.

Some members were opposed to the guarantee of interest, connected as it was with a prospective augmentation on the price of salt. Others urged the policy of limiting the guarantee to a stated number of years. The Minister said, that this point would be more suitably discussed at a subsequent stage; at the same time he gave it to be understood, that the Government were in favor of a permanent guarantee.

Some declared themselves hostile to the very principle of a state guarantee of the interest, inasmuch as it was not to be anticipated that the railroads would ever pay a profit; that, therefore, the state would be burdened with a permanent increase of expenditure, that would absorb every surplus of revenue, and eventually compel the government to cancel the reduction about to be made on the price of salt. It was contended, also, that the guarantee of the interest would be, to all intents and purposes, an augmentation of the national debt, a measure which, according to the law of the 17th of January, 1820, was not to be adopted without the express sanction of the states. Taking that view of the case, the present assembly could not be deemed competent to give its sanction to a measure of such importance, which could, in fact, obtain a legal character only by being submitted for the approbation of the states.

These latter arguments were warmly combatted by the Minister, who endeavored to draw a distinction between a debtor and an individual who became security for a debtor. If this view, moreover, were correct, it would apply to every permanent expenditure that the state might take upon itself. Nor was the assembly now called together to give a sanction to a measure, but rather to enlighten his Majesty as to the wishes and wants of the country relative to matters, in the regulation of which his Majesty was liable to no control. The Minister continued, for some time, to express himself in this sense, and then proceeded to show the inexpediency of undertaking the construction of railroads, as a public work, and at the expense of the state. At the conclusion of his speech, he put the question, whether the meeting held it necessary and expedient, that the state should endeavor to secure the construction of the wished for railroads, by offering to guaranty the interest on the necessary capital?

The division then took place, when the members from the several provinces voted as follows :

	Ayes.	Noes.
Prussia,	10	2
Brandenburg,	7	5
Pomerania,	11	0
Silesia,	12	0
Posen,	12	0
Saxony,	10	2
Westphalia,	10	2
The Rhine Provinces,	11	3
Total,	83	14

The question was then put : " Whether the Assembly wished to have the opinion entered on the minutes, that they would have preferred to see these railroads executed by the state itself, and whether they would have voted for the adoption of such a principle, if the government had

not declared its determination not, for the present, to undertake any such works on its own account ? ”

On this question the result of the division was as follows :

	Ayes.	Noes.
Prussia,	12	0
Brandenburg,	1	11
Pomerania,	11	0
Silesia,	1	11
Posen,	5	7
Saxony,	2	10
Westphalia,	5	7
The Rhine,	10	4
Total,	47	50

The next question, to the consideration of which the Assembly proceeded, was

“ Whether it would be consistent with the wishes of the country to undertake the said guarantee of the interest on the capital, subject to the contingency of a re-augmentation in the price of salt ? ”

The Minister argued the necessity of providing for the contingent emergency referred to, but declared himself ready to modify the question in such a manner, that there should be merely an augmentation of taxes generally to the extent of the reduction now contemplated, without specifying whether that augmentation should be in the shape of a higher price for salt.

The ordonnance by which it was ordered the committees of provincial states should be assembled, charged the Minister of the Interior with the duty of appointing the times and places of their assembling, directed that the assembly should be opened by the said minister, and established the rules by which their proceedings should be governed. This ordonnance is dated August 10, 1842, but it was not published until after the assembling of the committees. The following is the substance of these rules :

Art. 1. The chief of the department or the province where the object of the deliberation exists, must conduct the deliberation as royal commissary. He is supported in his function by a marshal, chosen from the members by the King.

2. The King will also choose the secretaries.

3. All communications to the commission come from the government through the home minister. The article mentions other forms.

4. The minister arranges the order of deliberation, if more than one proposition be presented.

5. The members for each province will assist.

6. A memoir on each question shall be presented to each member previous to discussion, and a project of the law, if such be proposed.

7. The deliberation opens by a statement, which the chiefs of departments get prepared, containing general considerations ; but explanations may be joined to the statement.

8. Members are called on alphabetically to give their opinion. Each can speak but once, and on the question exclusively, else he will be called to order by the marshal. But the chiefs of departments can speak as often as they please.

9. Orators can only address the chiefs of departments, not the person they may wish to refute.

10. A chief of department is judge of whether a summary of the discussion need be taken or not.

11. There are times of free discussion, when each member can speak as often as he pleases; and the marshal points out who shall speak when two have risen at the same time.

12. The marshal closes the debate when no one demands to speak. He may also close the discussion, unless three members should demand a vote as to the continuance or not of the debate.

13. After the debate, the chief of department puts the vote and states it.

14. No vote is necessary when there has been no divergence of opinion.

15. Votes are to be given alphabetically, but different letters beginning at different times in rotation.

16. A summary of the deliberations and the results will be drawn up. The summary is to contain, besides the statement of the discussion, 1. An account of the different opinions, (without entering into a detail of the arguments of the several members,) as well as observations made by the head of the department, or by the *employés* present, either to give explanations or to rectify errors. The names of the orators to be inserted after the summary. 2. The questions upon which the assembly shall have voted, and that in positive terms. 3. The result of the vote, as well as the vote of each committee.

17. The summary is to be read over in the next sitting for observation and assent.

18. The summary is to be sent to the Minister of State.

19. The final act shall not be published, but the home minister closes the assembly.

By the Ministry of State.

PRINCE OF PRUSSIA.

DE BOYEN.

MUHLER.

DE ROCHOW.

DE NAGLER.

DE LADENBERG.

ROTHER, Count of Alvensleben.

EICHHORN.

DE THILE.

DE SAVIGNY.

DE BULOW.

DE BODELSCHWINGH.

COUNT OF STOLBERG.

COUNT OF ARNIM.

These names are deserving of note as showing who are the individuals at present composing the Council, called the Ministry of State. This council, (see Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 5,) consists of members specially designated, is distinct from the council of ministers of departments, and forms a part of the council of state.

Upon these regulations an English writer remarks, that they present a curious aspect, as showing the kind of limitations under which it is supposed possible that a German popular assembly will be content to carry on its deliberations, and adds, that "however inconsistent with English notions of the natural working of a popular assembly, we believe these limitations to be at present wise and salutary. They will not last;

it is probably not intended that they should ; but they will give to those accustomed to the transaction of public business the power of moderating and guiding the efforts of this new power in the Prussian state, till time and the habits of the people, and the force of exigencies, and the practical wisdom of statesmen, shall have more definitely fixed its character and direction."

It may be interesting here to present the remarks of one of the leading Paris journals, on this experiment in representative government. We copy from the *Journal des Débats*. "This experiment seems to have very imperfectly answered the expectations to which it gave birth on the other side of the Rhine. Those who examined with any degree of attention the composition of that body, and the very restricted powers conceded to it, could not possibly have regarded it as even the semblance of a Legislative Chamber ; it was clear that the King of Prussia wished merely to found a sort of Council of State, whose business would be to examine and work out questions of a purely administrative nature, without being invested with any initiative in matters of legislation. But Prussia, recollecting promises made in 1814 and 1815, and since that period having seen the secondary States around her successively obtaining from their sovereigns charters and legislative chambers, flattered herself that the establishment of a committee of provincial states was a pledge for the approaching foundation of General States, and she greeted this first concession of the Royal prerogative as a step towards the realization of her constitutional hopes.

"These impressions must have been banished by the first deliberations of the new Assembly ; and there is a remarkable contrast between the curiosity and interest at first excited by the promulgation of the Royal Ordinances, and the almost total indifference manifested to the sittings of the committee. The very insignificant minutes which have been published on the result of these deliberations, show the extent of the intervention awarded by the Government to the delegates of the States in the affairs of the kingdom ; the ministers of each department have put to them some questions respecting the timeliness of certain measures ; but the votes collected have been only in the form of opinions, which the Executive power may adopt or neglect at discretion.

"It is not our intention to find fault with the institution or the composition of the Committee of the States. We are not warm advocates of improvised legislation, and we think that laws should be successively adapted to the manners of the people for whom they are destined. The King of Prussia certainly cannot be reproached with wishing to give to his people a constitutional education, before granting to them prematurely and inconsiderately institutions which have become, (though they were not always,) foreign to their political habits ; and, in spite of the calculated timidity of the experiment he is now trying, it must nevertheless be regarded as a germ which will gradually enlarge, and one day or other ripen into a system of government similar to those of the western Powers of Europe. At present, however, it would be difficult to establish any comparison between the new Assembly which has met at Berlin, and the deliberative assemblies of France and England. A cursory glance at the

forms of deliberation determined by the ordinance of the King of Prussia, is sufficient to afford an idea of the restrictions imposed on the liberty of discussion in the Committee of the States. The Royal prerogative maintains undivided sway in the regulations. The President, who has the title of Marshal, is appointed by the King; and it is he who, as in France and England, maintains order in the sittings. In our assemblies, any member may obtain leave to present a plan of law; in Prussia, the Ministers alone possess the right of taking the lead in the deliberations. The debate is opened by the head of the department whence the order of the day emanates. Previously to the discussion, each member receives a memorial explanatory of the question to be proposed, and the head of the department has, as Royal Commissioner, the direction of the debate. Each member is allowed to speak only once; and then he must confine himself exclusively to the question under consideration; but the Ministers, as in France, may speak as often as they think fit. It is curious to observe the different modes in which the privilege of speaking is distributed in Paris, in London, and in Berlin. In England, the Speaker possesses almost discretionary authority on this point. When any member of the House of Commons has finished his speech, the Speaker looks round, and the first person whom he observes making a sign to him, has the privilege of addressing the House. It rarely happens that this simple and expeditive method leads to any dispute. In France we have the inscribing of turns. Every session we find some of our honorable members passing the night in the Salle des Conférences, in order to get themselves inscribed for or against the address, and not unfrequently taking all this trouble for the sake of reading a written improvisation, which nobody listens to. Possibly the English method has the effect of giving a more natural and sincere tone to the discussion. It is true, there prevails in the English Parliament a feeling of conventional hierarchy, which makes secondary speakers readily give place to the acknowledged leaders of their party. It is true, that the Speaker of the House of Commons, being elected for the whole duration of the Parliament, must be more completely independent of party influence than a President subject every year to the chances of reëlection, which renders more acceptable the sort of dictatorship. But after all, we ourselves may, perhaps, end in having parties and party leaders, and in ceasing to be jealous of authority, even that which we delegate. In Prussia, even more than in France, forms operate to check the ease and spontaneity of discussion. There the speaking turns succeed one to another with mathematical precision. Each member, as has already been observed, can speak only once, and moreover he can speak only in alphabetic order. Consequently there is no discussion, but merely an explanation of the reasons on which the votes are founded.

“As to publicity, it is not to be spoken of. The minutes of the deliberation consist simply of a summary drawn up under the control of one of the Secretaries of State. The names of the speakers are inserted at the end of the summary with the votes.

“It must be observed, however, that the publicity of debates is always the last concession granted by deliberative assemblies. In England, to this day, it exists only by toleration, and in theory it is a violation of the

privileges of Parliament. It cannot, therefore, be matter of astonishment that Prussia, at her debut in the Parliamentary career, should not be further advanced than nations more practiced in those matters. In short, the most important consideration in reference to the establishment of the Committee of the Prussian States is not the immediate result of that constitutional experiment, but the liberal intention it denotes, and the hope it affords for the future."

The committees brought their labors to a close on the 10th of November. They met for the purpose of approving the minutes of the preceding session. The Ministry of State were then introduced into the Assembly by a deputation of members. The Minister of the Interior and Royal Commissioner, Count Arnim, made an address, in terms of approbation of their labors, to which the Prince Solms, the Marshal of the Committees, replied. The Minister then, in the name of the King, declared the Assembly closed.

The members were then conducted to the King's apartment, who addressed them to the following effect :

"On receiving the committees at the time of their convocation, I did not think it consistent to address them in a body, as I could only express the confidence I had in them, or give them advice. So much abuse is made in these times of the word confidence, that I did not think it fit to be employed on that occasion ; and, more particularly, as the act alone of constituting the committees was the highest proof that could be given of Royal confidence ; and to have offered counsel to them would, as it appeared to me, have been equally misplaced. But now, that their labors are brought to a close, it becomes my duty to present my grateful thanks to them. Finding myself surrounded by deputies from all the provinces, my heart cannot refrain from opening itself to them in all candor. Since 1823, I have followed, with the greatest attention and interest, and, I may even say, with peculiar predilection, the proceedings of the States through all their developements. I created the Committees of the States, first, to form a point of centralization, which, otherwise, according to our constitution, would not have been possible ; and, secondly, to discuss matters affecting the welfare of the country. I am of opinion, that every deliberative assembly, be it council of arrondissement, or of commune, or of province, or committee, or all the committees united, possess a double character, and I deem it proper to express to the assembly before me my way of thinking on this point. The assemblies of the states, first, are representatives of their own privileges and of those of the states who have elected them ; and, secondly, they are councillors of the crown, but with such an independence of action as would be sought for in vain elsewhere ; for, to their own independence is joined that of the persons who have chosen them. This is a truth, of which every deputy must be fully convinced ; but he ought also to be fully aware of another truth, that he is not the representative of a party. I perceived with satisfaction that this spirit prevailed in the Assembly of the States from the period of their existence. It was particularly manifested to me in the last session of the States, and it afforded me infinite pleasure. I charge all the persons here present, when they return, and find themselves in the midst of the assem-

blies which elected them, to express to them all my gratitude. This is what I was anxious to say to you ; and I desire further to offer you my sincere thanks for the spirit which has animated your deliberations, and for your having so happily responded to my confidence."

After this address, the King entered into familiar conversation with the members, and they dispersed much pleased with the cordiality of the interview. The members received from the Treasury at the rate of three rix dollars per day for their attendance, and one dollar and ten groschen for each post mile of travel from and to their respective residences.

THE FOREIGN TRADE OF RUSSIA.

The Journal de St. Petersburg publishes the following returns of the exports and imports of Russia in the year 1841 :

	Silver Roubles.
Exports — To foreign countries,	86,382,179
To Finland,	1,349,192
To Poland,	2,034,739
Total,	89,766,110
Imports — From foreign countries,	79,429,490
From Finland,	551,558
From Poland,	820,541
Total,	80,801,589
Balance in favor of Russia,	8,964,521
Total of foreign exports, from 1838 to 1841, exclusive of corn :	

	Silver Roubles.
In 1838,	70,562,252
1839,	69,640,761
1840,	68,704,971
1841,	75,999,670

The increase which took place in 1841 is accounted for by the extraordinary development of the relations between Russia and China during that year. The latter had never before sent so large a quantity of tea to the market of Kiakhtha, so that the importation of that article, although very considerable during the preceding years, augmented in a remarkable proportion in 1841.

Total of imports from 1838 to 1841 :

	Silver Roubles.
In 1838,	69,693,824
1839,	69,993,589
1840,	76,726,111
1841,	79,429,490

The gold and silver ingots or coin are not included in the above amounts. In 1841 the exports of precious metals were 4,023,728 silver roubles, and the imports 9,347,867.

The navigation was less active in 1841 than during the preceding year, the number of arrivals in all the Russian possessions having been —

Vessels laden,	2,596	measuring	452,760 tons.
Vessels in ballast,	2174	measuring	410,164 tons.
That of clearances from Russian harbors —			
Vessels laden,	4,582	measuring	819,232 tons.
Vessels in ballast,	312	measuring	58,046 tons.

Total,	4,894	measuring	877,278
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There arrived, moreover, at St. Petersburg, 82 steamers from Lubeck, Stockholm, London, and Havre; and in the Black Sea, 27 passages were made between Odessa and Constantinople, and 54 between the former and the southern coast of Crimea.

The coasting navigation presented in the northern seas a greater activity than during the previous year, whilst in the Black Sea there was a small diminution, the number of vessels which proceeded from one harbor to another having amounted, in the former, to 2,007, and in the latter, to 5,275.

The import duties, finally, produced the following amounts ;

	Silver Roubles.	Copecks.
Customs duties,	26,543,066	67
Duties on the salt proceeding from the salt lakes of Crimea,	124,981	91
Hire of stores, &c.	173,448	31
Additional duties in favor of several cities,	545,997	99
Total,	27,387,494	88

The cost of collecting those duties amounted to 7 4-9 per cent. of the receipts.

THE GLACIARUM.

THIS is the name given to a novel and ingenious exhibition of artificial ice, placed on the spot forming a part of the lake attached to the Swiss Cottage, near London, where skaters may, on the most burning day of summer, enjoy and display all their graceful and exhilarating evolutions, without the fear of a sudden or frigid emersion. In order to give due effect to this extraordinary invention, M. P. Phillips, the artist, has been a long time employed in painting and forming such combinations of art and representative nature, as to realize as nearly as possible the characteristic and sublime features of the Alpine regions. Fearful precipices, rocky chasms, trees, &c., covered with hoar frost, and the chain of Alpine mountains covered with eternal snow, have been produced with a depth of pencil so true to nature, that the spectator appears at once to participate in the gloom and chilliness of the scenes by which he is surrounded. To those who would enjoy the sweets of travel without the fatigue, a visit to the Swiss Cottage will prove highly gratifying. — *London Paper.*

CHRONOLOGY.

FOREIGN.

LONDON, November 20. **THE NIGER EXPEDITION.** The following letter, dated at Cape Coast Castle, September 26, 1842, describes the winding up of the unfortunate Niger expedition:

"The Wilberforce, you will recollect, was here in March last, at which time Captain W. Allen was preparing to reascend the Niger, to look after the 'Model Farm' people, and if possible to do something to retrieve the fame of the expedition. He proceeded hence to Fernando Po, to fit out the Soudan, to accompany him. While he was still lying there the Kite steamer arrived with orders from Government, that only one vessel was to go up the river, and that she was only to have on board four or five white men at most. Her only object in going up was to be the bringing back the people left at the farm. On receiving these orders, Captain Allen and most of his officers and crew went on board the Kite for a passage to England. The other commissioner (Cook) went home by the Golden Spring. The Wilberforce, under charge of her present commander, (Lieutenant Webb,) proceeded up the river, and found the 'Model Farm' a very perfect model of disorganization. The blacks who had been left at it, having plenty of cowries, (a species of India shell used as money,) and goods, voted themselves to be independent country gentlemen, and managed to get hold of a lot of natives, whom they very coolly made slaves of, and whom they compelled to work on the farm, each gentleman being provided with a cat, or slave driver's whip, the better to enforce obedience. The model farmer himself, (Carr, brother of the Chief Justice of Sierra Leone,) has never been heard of, and had, as it afterwards appeared, been killed somewhere near the mouth of the river. The Wilberforce brought away farm implements, people and all, and those of the latter belonging to this place are now being discharged here. The steamer got on a rock in the river, where she remained five days, and came down with a

hole in her bottom, which now compels her to go home. So much for the last speech and dying words of the far-famed Niger expedition. A more mismanaged piece of business, from beginning to end, is not, I will venture to say, to be found recorded in any history."

LONDON, November 28. **BANK CIRCULATION IN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.** Returns of promissory notes in circulation in the United Kingdom during the four weeks ending the 12th inst., compared with the returns for the same period last year:

	This Year 1842, Nov. 12.	Last Year 1841, Nov. 13.	In- crease.	De- crease.
	£	£	£	£
ENGLAND.				
B. of Eng- land,	30,104,000	17,065,000	3,039,000	
Priv. Banks,	5,434,822	6,288,723		853,901
Joint Stock Banks,	3,196,964	3,421,135		224,171
SCOTLAND.				
Chartered, Priv. & Joint Stock B'ks,	2,891,865	3,383,036		491,171
IRELAND.				
Bank of Ire- land,	3,163,200	3,333,375		170,175
Priv. & Joint Stock B'ks,	2,126,829	2,611,314		484,485
Bullion in the Bank,	9,937,000	4,218,000	5,699,000	

DOMESTIC.

BOSTON, December 2. **SHIPWRECKS.** The new bark Isadore, Captain Leander Foss, belonging to Kennebunk, Me. sailed thence on Wednesday morning, 30th ult., for New Orleans, and was totally lost in the ESE. gale, same night, on Maxwell's beach, near Cape Neddock, York, Me. Every person on board, fourteen or fifteen in number, perished! They were all young men belonging to Kennebunk. The vessel was of 395 tons burthen, was owned by several shipmasters of Kennebunk, including Captain Foss, was valued at \$22,500, and insured for \$22,000 at one office in this city. She probably had a small cargo of hay and potatoes, of no great value. Captain Foss was formerly master of bark Horace, of Kennebunk,

which vessel went ashore near the same place, two or three years since, Captain F. having put in on account of a mutiny among his crew, when on a voyage from New Orleans to Europe.

On the same night the schooner James Clark, Captain Beck, of and from St. John, N. B. via Portland, for Boston, went ashore on Rye Beach, New Hampshire, and six passengers perished. Their names were Daniel Mahoney; — Barry; a lady, and her daughter, five years old; a child of Mrs. Stewart, and a little girl, named Peggy. The vessel was a total loss, with her cargo of potatoes, old iron, and laths. Captain Beck was confined to his bed at Portsmouth; three of the crew have arrived in the city, a free passage having been given them on the Eastern Railroad.

BOSTON, December 3. MASSACHUSETTS BANKS. It appears from the abstract of Bank returns, made for the first Saturday in October, that the number and condition of Banks in Massachusetts, were as follows: The number of banks now in operation is 111, with an aggregate capital of \$32,631,060. This is a reduction in the amount of capital within the last year of \$128,740. The aggregate circulation of the 111 banks is \$8,049,906; of which amount, however, \$1,678,278 is in the possession of other banks, and thus taken out of circulation, leaving the actual circulation \$6,371,628. The amount of deposits not bearing interest is \$6,130,164.

The amount of specie in the banking houses, at the close of the day of the date of the returns, was \$2,652,309. The amount of notes, bills, and other securities discounted, was \$44,610,391.

The amount of circulation this year is less than by the return of last year, which was made in September, by \$1,278,837; the amount of deposits is less than last year, by \$664,676; the amount of specie is less by \$404,512, and the amount of securities discounted is less by 2,160,975.

BOSTON, Dec. 31. PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN BOSTON. The primary schools are under the direction of a Board, selected from the citizens at large for that service, which is performed gratuitously, and it may be judged with what fidelity, from the statement, that, within the last six months, the primary schools have received 1969 visits, and 798 examinations. There are

104 primary schools, contain-

ing

6541 pupils.

13 grammar schools, containing 6308 "
1 English High School, containing 136 "

1 Latin School, containing 120 "

Total, 13,405

in a population of 93,000 inhabitants. There are 37 male and 166 female teachers. The charge for the support of the Public Schools for the financial year: 1841 '2, exclusive of the expense of erecting a new school house, was \$120,456, or the moderate charge of \$8.98 per annum for each pupil.

BOSTON, December 31. PAUPERISM IN MASSACHUSETTS. An abstract, drawn up by the Secretary of State, of the returns made conformably to law, by the overseers of the Poor in the towns of Massachusetts, (four returns only being deficient,) for the twelve months ending November 1, 1842, shows the extent and method of operation of the pauper system in Massachusetts.

The number of persons relieved or supported as paupers in the Commonwealth during the year was 13,688; which is equal to 1 pauper to every 54 inhabitants. Of this number, 5,251 are State paupers, or persons having no legal settlement in any town in the State, and 2,805 of them are foreigners, of whom 2,302 are from Great Britain or Ireland. The number of paupers having legal settlements in towns of the Commonwealth is 8,521. The number relieved in Boston was 3,251, of whom 2,363 have no legal settlement in the State, and 1,365 were foreigners.

The number of almshouses in the State is 181, and the lands attached thereto amount to 17,811 acres. The estimated value of these almshouses and lands is \$900,281. The number of persons relieved in the almshouses in the course of the year, was 6,594; and the average number supported through the year 3,968; the average weekly cost of their support being 83 cents. The average weekly cost in the Boston almshouse was 98 cents. The Boston almshouse establishment, including 42 acres of land, is valued at \$100,000.

The number of persons in almshouses unable to perform labor, was 2,949. The value of labor performed by paupers in almshouses, was \$26,509. The value of labor in the Boston almshouse, \$3,500. The number of persons aided and support

ed out of almshouses, was 6,822, of whom in Boston, 1,900. The average cost of such support, was 88 cents.

The number of insane persons received or supported at public charge, is 540; and of idiots, 338. The number of persons supposed to have been reduced to pauperism by intemperance in themselves or others, 7,154. The number of foreign paupers which came into the Commonwealth within the year, 445.

The aggregate amount of expense in supporting and relieving paupers, including interest on almshouse establishments, \$306,070, of which \$40,997 were paid by the Commonwealth for the support of State paupers.

BOSTON, December 31. CATTLE MARKET AT BRIGHTON, NEAR BOSTON. The following is the report of the several descriptions of animals sold at the Brighton market during the last year, and the four preceding years:

Animals sold in 1842.

32,070 Beef Cattle.	Sales estimated at \$1,246,940
17,196 Stores.	" " 256,890
106,655 Sheep.	" " 197,986
39,935 Swine.	" " 109,924

1841. \$1,741,740

36,607 Beef Cattle,	} Sales estimated at \$2,400,188
18,794 Stores,	
198,650 Sheep,	
31,872 Swine.	

1840.

34,160 Beef Cattle,	} Sales estimated at \$1,990,577
12,736 Stores,	
194,178 Sheep,	
32,350 Swine.	

1839.

22,263 Beef Cattle,	} Sales estimated at \$1,901,864
15,252 Stores,	
95,400 Sheep,	
26,068 Swine.	

1838.

25,830 Beef Cattle,	} Sales estimated at \$2,058,004
9,573 Stores,	
104,640 Sheep,	
26,104 Swine.	

The quantity of Flour and grain imported into Boston from other ports during the last year and the preceding five years, was as follows:

Year.	Bbls.	Bals.	Bals.	Bals.
	Flour.	Corn.	Oats.	Rye.
1842.	609,460	1,535,163	293,474	39,122
1841.	574,233	2,044,129	356,502	34,128
1840.	619,261	1,868,431	437,948	48,026
1839.	451,667	1,607,492	439,141	48,624
1838.	379,704	1,574,038	443,657	102,473
1837.	423,246	1,725,436	405,173	86,391

The import of Cotton at Boston during the past year amounted to 119,670 bales, of which from New Orleans 56,343 bales, Mobile 19,204, Charleston 19,566, Savannah 11,331, Florida 11,201, other ports 2,002. This is a decrease from the import

of the two preceding years, the aggregate of which was as follows:

1841.	131,860 bales.
1840.	138,709 "
1839.	94,361 "
1838.	96,636 "
1837.	62,684 "

The imports of Coal during the last year, from the South, 90,276 tons, and 121,800 bushels, of which 76,604 tons were from Philadelphia; English, 11,014 tons; Nova Scotia and Sydney, 18,460 chaldrons. Import in 1841, Philadelphia &c. 110,932 tons, and 124,041 bushels; English, 12,754 tons; Nova Scotia and Sydney, 27,187 chaldrons.

Sugar imported at Boston:

	Brown, lbs.	White, lbs.
1842.	29,541,675	8,695,237
1841.	31,990,342	11,252,061
1840.	29,978,674	9,704,521

The vessels which arrived at Boston in 1842 from foreign ports, were ships and barks 331, steamers 46, brigs 469, schooners 870, sloop 1, of which 580 were American, 829 British, and 28 under other foreign flags.

The arrivals, coastwise, were ships and barks 265, brigs 630, schooners 2,833, sloops 134. The number of arrivals for the last six years were as follows:

	Foreign.	Coastwise.
1842.	1,737	3,562
1841.	1,791	4,446
1840.	1,628	4,336
1839.	1,553	4,251
1838.	1,313	4,018
1837.	1,591	4,000

The clearances were:

	Ships & Brigs.	Schrs.	Slps.	St'rs.
	Barks.			
For'n,	228	423	822	1 47
C'wise,	372	509	1423	75
	600	932	2245	76 47

	Foreign.	Coastwise.
Total,	1,521	2,379
" 1841,	1,569	2,668
" 1840,	1,337	2,815
" 1839,	1,381	2,803
" 1838,	1,124	2,901
" 1837,	1,381	2,506

New York, December 15. The U. S. brig Somers arrived from St. Thomas, at which port she had touched on her return from Liberia, whither she sailed in September last, from the United States. Three or four days after her return, there transpired the intelligence of a mutiny which had been detected on board of her, before her arrival at St. Thomas. The plan of the mutineers had been to capture

the vessel, to kill the officers, and to cruise as pirates in her. She is a vessel of 10 guns, and an excellent sailer. Her crew consisted of 18 seamen and 80 apprentices. Lieutenant A. S. McKenzie, her commander, with great energy and decision, at once arrested several who appeared to be active in the plan, among others Midshipman Philip A. Spencer, who is supposed to have contrived it. These measures not checking the apparent disaffection however, by the advice of his officers, he commanded, on the 1st of December, the execution of Spencer, and two seamen, Cromwell and Small, who had also been arrested. This very decisive course put an end to the mutiny.

A court of inquiry was at once ordered by Government, which began its sessions in the North Carolina man-of-war, in New York harbor, on the 30th of December. The distressing particulars of the event have already been published so widely, that we do not consider it necessary to add any further details in the Chronicle.

WASHINGTON, December 30. COMMERCE of 1842. According to statements of the Register of the Treasury, which accompany the annual report of the Secretary of the Treasury, the amount in value of imports to the United States in the year ending September 30, 1842, was \$99,357,399; and the amount of exports \$104,117,969. Of the latter, \$11,558,631 in value consisted of foreign products, and \$92,559,088 of domestic produce. These statements, so far as they regard the items for the last quarter of the year, are founded partly on estimates.

This amount of imports is less than in any year since 1830, and what is a more striking proof of the diminution of business, although this year followed two years of diminished imports, the amount is less by \$34,000,000 than the average of annual imports for the preceding ten years. It is a little singular, that in the last quarter reported, namely, the third quarter of 1842, in two months of which the import duties were regulated by the reduced tariff of the compromise act, and when consequently lower rates were charged than in any other period for the last thirty years, the amount of imports was less than in any quarter for the last ten years.

The falling off of exports in 1832, compared with those of preceding years, was not so great as that of imports. The amount, however, was less than in any

year for the last preceding eight years. The amount of duties raised in 1842 was greater than might have been expected, namely, \$18,260,630. This amount is larger than that of duties received in either of the two preceding years, and larger than the receipts in any of the preceding eight years, with three exceptions.

NANTUCKET, December 30. Importations of Spermin and Whale Oil into the United States during the year 1842 furnished by Mr. Thomas Cross:

Ports.	Ships.	Brigs, Schrs.	Tons.	Bbls. Sperm.	Bbls. Whale.
Nantucket	14	9	4,972	26,289	68
Edgartown	2	4	817	2,367	18
Holmes's Hole	1		358	809	2,288
New Bedford	68	4	20,365	71,583	51,112
Fairhaven	14		4,241	14,454	13,180
Dartmouth	1		306	1,150	86
Westport	6	3	1,477	2,640	120
Mattapoisett	3	5	1,382	3,070	229
Sippican		2	251	340	2
Wareham	1	3	651	1,240	2,286
Fall River	2	1	618	2,350	1,122
Somerset		1	137	320	
Plymouth		4	362	526	5
Salem	6		1,634	7,450	2,201
Boston	5	3	1,860	7,914	4,721
Falmouth	1		187	366	
Provincetown	2	8	1,129	1,570	16
Portsmouth	1		348	470	1,529
Newport	2	2	927	2,269	270
Bristol	2		663	420	2,468
Warren	3	2	1,251	1,801	222
New London	16	6	5,732	4,310	23,424
Stonington	3	1	1,069	721	6,430
Mystic	3		965	775	5,225
Sagharbor	13		4,052	3,790	24,420
Greenport	1	1	405	731	625
Bridgeport	2		554	53	3,470
Cold Spring	1		250		1,550
New York	3	1	1,211	2,195	8,200
Backport		1	100	110	
Total	176	54	58,346	163,097	16,811
Importation of 1841, .				160,524	205,277

UNITED STATES CONGRESS.

Monday, the 5th of December, was the day prescribed by the law for the beginning of the third session of the twenty-seventh Congress. On that day a quorum of the House of Representatives appeared, and in that body one or two matters of form were transacted. A recent violent snow-storm had so interfered with the travelling in the Northern States, that comparatively few members were present at Washington, and no quorum of the Senate appeared until Tuesday. On Wednesday, the President sent to Congress his annual Message, together with the reports of the heads of departments.

The President began by alluding to the improvement made by the recent treaty with Great Britain in the aspect of our

foreign affairs. He alluded to the questions yet unsettled with that country, and particularly to that of the Northwestern Boundary, to which he proposed to call the attention of the English government. The commissioners on the claims of our citizens upon Mexico had made their final report, allowing claims to the amount of \$2,026,079, which our Minister at Mexico has been directed to demand. He recommended the adoption of a warehousing system, and urges strong reasons in favor of it. He recommended to Congress, if they should deem it proper to revise the tariff of duties, to bear in mind the suggestions heretofore made by him on that subject, particularly moderate duties, and a judicious discrimination. He announced a great reduction in the expenses of the military department. He recommended a sale of the mineral lands; also improvements of the Western waters, embracing harbors on the lakes, and the removal of obstructions in the Mississippi. He recommended strongly to Congress the adoption of the Exchequer scheme, which was submitted by him at the last session, (Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 565,) and without suggesting any material modifications. He went into an argument in answer to objections which have been made to the scheme, and to demonstrate its advantages. He assumed it to be "conclusively settled," that there cannot be issues of national paper by a chartered institution. He urged the advantages of the Exchequer scheme, both in affording a general currency, so much needed to maintain the internal trade, and in affording to the government a financial resource, to the amount probably of \$10,000,000. In speaking of the necessity of this resource, he gave a most melancholy exhibition of the prostrated credit of the country.

The Message concluded with recommending the reimbursement to General Jackson, of the fine imposed on him in 1815, for a contempt of Court, in imprisoning a Judge of a District Court of the United States, under color of military authority.

The President also gave some information as to the state of the different departments, which will be found more in detail in the abstract of their reports, which we proceed to give.

The *Secretary of the Treasury* stated in his report, that the receipts into the Treasury during the three first quarters of the present year, amount to \$26,616,593,78, namely:

From Customs,	14,260,830,35
From Lands,	1,091,638,95
From miscellaneous and incidental sources,	112,967,17
From Treasury Notes, per Act 15th Feb. 1841,	1,060,206,05
From Treasury Notes, per Act 31st Jan. 1842,	7,794,821,59
From Loan of 1841 and 1842,	2,296,129,67
The receipts of the fourth quarter it is estimated will amount to	7,883,000,00
Namely: From Customs,	4,000,000,00
From Land,	366,000,00
From miscellaneous and incidental sources,	20,000,00
From Treasury Notes,	2,500,000,00
From Loan,	11,000,000,00
Making the total estimate for the year	34,502,593,78
And with the balance in the Treasury on the 1st January last, (\$30,483,68,) an aggregate of	34,733,077,46
The expenditures for the three first quarters of the present year, have amounted to	26,264,832,20
Namely: Civil list, foreign intercourse, and miscellaneous,	4,371,933,93
Army, fortifications, pensions, fulfilment of Indian treaties, suppressing Indian hostilities, &c.	7,065,035,95
Naval Service,	6,717,084,17
Treasury Notes redeemed, including interest,	7,856,400,35
Public debt, including interest on the loan,	254,427,80
The expenditures for the fourth quarter, are estimated on data furnished by the respective departments,	8,238,278,15
Total of expenditures, 1842,	\$35,308,634,36
Deficiency, Dec. 31, 1842,	575,556,92
The Secretary estimated the receipts for the first six months of 1843 at	\$14,588,113,45
The expenses, (including the above deficiency,) at	10,958,743,68
Balance, July 1, 1843,	3,731,369,77
He estimates the revenue of the next year at	18,850,000,00
	21,581,369,77
The expenses at	20,945,498,76
Balance, July 1, 1844,	635,871,01

Besides these estimates, the report contained a recommendation of a warehouse system, substantiated by high mercantile authority. The Secretary spoke of the tariff, and argued that its results could not yet be satisfactorily ascertained. He hint-

ed that the maintenance of public credit required some increase of revenue, which could easily be obtained by new duties.

The *Postmaster General* stated in his report that the whole amount of mail transportation for the year ending June 30, 1842, was 34,835,991 miles.

At a contract cost of \$3,087,991

The transportation in the preceding year having been

34,996,525 miles.

At a contract cost of \$3,159,375

The service now performed requiring the labors of 13,633 postmasters, with their clerks, and 2,343 contractors, with their agents. The expenditures had been reduced, by a reduction of unproductive routes, and the institution of a system for the preservation of the public property used by the department. As an illustration of the efficacy of this system, it was mentioned that a saving of nearly \$30,000 had been effected in the single article of mail-bags.

The revenue for the year ending June 30, 1842, was \$4,546,246

The gross expenditures for the same time, 4,627,716

The revenue had increased \$166,928 from the preceding year.

Of the appropriation made by Congress in Sept. 1841, to meet the then existing debts of the Post-Office Department, \$392,664 have been expended; \$89,992 yet remain to satisfy such other demands as may be proved to have been due in March, 1841. This sum of \$392,664 is not included in the revenue mentioned above, but is included in the expenditures, so that the apparent surplus on the 1st of July last, was \$311,194. This surplus will be considerably diminished by accounts yet to be audited. It appears probable, however, that henceforth the Post-Office may, under proper management, meet its own expenses.

Every demand on the Department has been promptly paid. Postmasters who have not paid their balances at sight of the drafts of the General Post-Office, "have been relieved from the burdens of official duty."

After these statements, the *Postmaster* proceeded to some recommendations on the modification of the franking privilege; on the reduction of the rates of postage, on which he promised a specific report; on the *extra-mail* carriage of mail matter; on the purchasing from railroads the perpetual right to send the mails by them; and some statements with regard

to the city despatch post in New York. An agent has been employed in England and France during the last year to collect statistics concerning the rates of postage and the establishment of steam-packets between Havre and New York.

The *Secretary of War* estimated all the demands of his Department for the first six months of 1843 at \$620,949. This is a great reduction on the requisitions of previous years, arising partly from the termination of the Florida war, and partly from the use of balances, unexpended during the past year, from fear that the state of the treasury would not permit heavy drafts at that time. The demands for this department for the year commencing July 1, 1843, were \$4,144,154

It appears from the *Secretary's* report that the regular force now authorized by law, is as follows, namely:

Commissioned Officers,	777
Storekeepers,	17
Men enlisted for the Ordnance,	250
Non-commissioned officers, musicians, artificers, and privates,	7,530
Chaplains and schoolmasters,	20
	<hr/> 5,594

Besides this number of men, the law authorizes as many ordnance sergeants as there are military posts, and clerks, forage-masters, and wagon-masters, according to the exigencies of the service. The act of August last reduces the rank and file of the army 3,920 men. This reduction is gradually proceeding in the manner proposed by the act, and will probably reach the proposed limit by the beginning of the year 1844. The last return showed an excess of 1,970 men.

The *Secretary* supposed the Florida war to be at an end; 450 Indians had been shipped for the West during the past year, and 200 more had surrendered. A force of 1,644 men is still retained, however, in that territory. A considerable force has also been maintained on the southwest frontier, from fear of Indian incursions in that quarter. The *Secretary*, in this connexion, suggested a reconsideration of the act passed at the last session, by which the second regiment of dragoons will be disbanded in the ensuing spring. He called the attention of Congress to the law respecting the enlistment of aliens. Judicial authorities having decided that aliens were not bound by enlistment, a larger number of discharges of recruits have ensued than were ever known before. He asked for some means to enforce the col-

lection of militia statistics. He repeated his suggestion for a small national foundry. He went at length into an examination of the present tenure of the mineral lands owned by Government, the management of which pertains to his department; and suggested, that the gradual sale of these lands would be a system much preferable to the present, by which they are let on long leases. He called the attention of Congress to the fortifications on the new northern frontier, and to several other points of defence. A renewal of the project for a chain of posts to the Pacific Ocean, was the most important of the other subjects, to which, in a very long report, the Secretary alluded.

The Secretary of the Navy stated, in detail, the stations on which the different vessels of the Navy had been acting. The cruising ground of the "Home Squadron" had been enlarged so as to include the "West India Station." He hoped that Congress would take such measures as should allow him to enlarge the squadrons in the Pacific and Indian Oceans. He asked for appropriations to permit him to fit out a squadron for the African coast. He suggested that the public vessels ought to be kept more at sea than they have hitherto been, believing that in this manner the efficiency of the Navy would be greatly increased.

In this report appeared the following statement of a difficulty which took place last summer, of which no official information has hitherto been given:

"Our relations with the countries of the Mediterranean have been preserved on the most friendly footing, with the single exception of the empire of Morocco. In consequence of an outrage, offered by a subordinate officer of that Government, to the late consul of the United States, Mr. Carr, it was deemed necessary to call on the higher authorities to disavow the act, and to punish the aggressor. This was promptly done by Commodore Morgan; and after many delays and much unnecessary formality on the part of the Emperor, ample redress was afforded by the public disavowal of the offence, and dismissal of the offending officer. The friendly relations between the two countries are now restored."

The earliest movement of importance made in Congress, was a renewal of the attempt of the last session to repeal the Bankrupt Law, passed at the extra session

of 1840, (Mon. Chron. Vol. II. p. 384.) On the 8th of December, Mr. Benton introduced a bill into the Senate for this purpose, which passed to its second reading. The Senate then referred it to the Judiciary Committee, and did not act upon it definitely at any time in the course of the month, although some debate arose upon it. This repeal bill proposed that cases now pending should, under certain conditions, be prosecuted to a conclusion.

On the 13th, Mr. Everett introduced a bill with the same general object in the House. It was simply provided in it, that no proceedings commenced before Dec. 5, 1842, should be affected by the repeal. The House debated this bill with a good deal of zeal at different times through the month, but came to no final action upon it.

An attempt was made in the House, at the earliest possible period of the session, on motion of Mr. Adams, to rescind the rule of the House, by which all abolition petitions and memorials are laid on the table unread. This motion was, after some discussion, laid on the table on the 12th, by a vote of 106 to 102.

By an act passed at the last session of this Congress, the beginning of the fiscal year was changed from January to July. In order to carry this change into effect, it became necessary to pass an appropriation bill, for the different services required in the first six months of 1843. Such a bill for the civil appropriation was reported on the 14th in the House, and after some amendment, it passed that body on the 21st. The Senate passed it without debate or amendment on the 23d, and it became a law. It will be observed, that the Heads of Departments, in the reports of which we have given abstracts above, prepared their estimates with a view to this new arrangement of the fiscal year.

On the 31st of the month, two communications were received from the President by the House of Representatives. One of them suggested the propriety of the appointment of an agent of Government in China, to act in a diplomatic capacity, if necessary. The other called attention to the importance of our trade and friendly relations with the Sandwich Islands, and suggested the propriety of establishing an United States' consul there. This message stated that the President had informed the King of these Islands, that the United States recognized their independence.

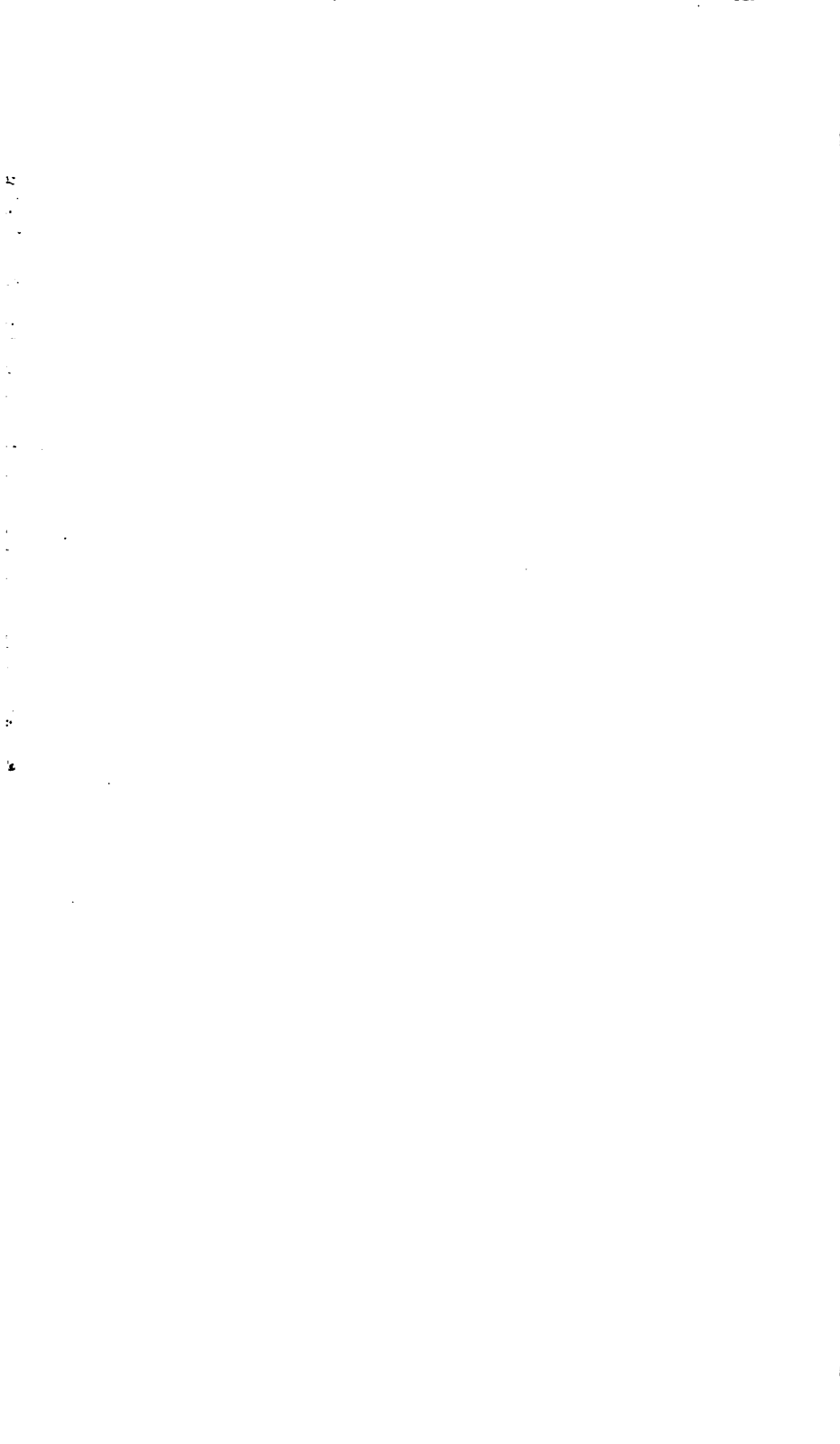
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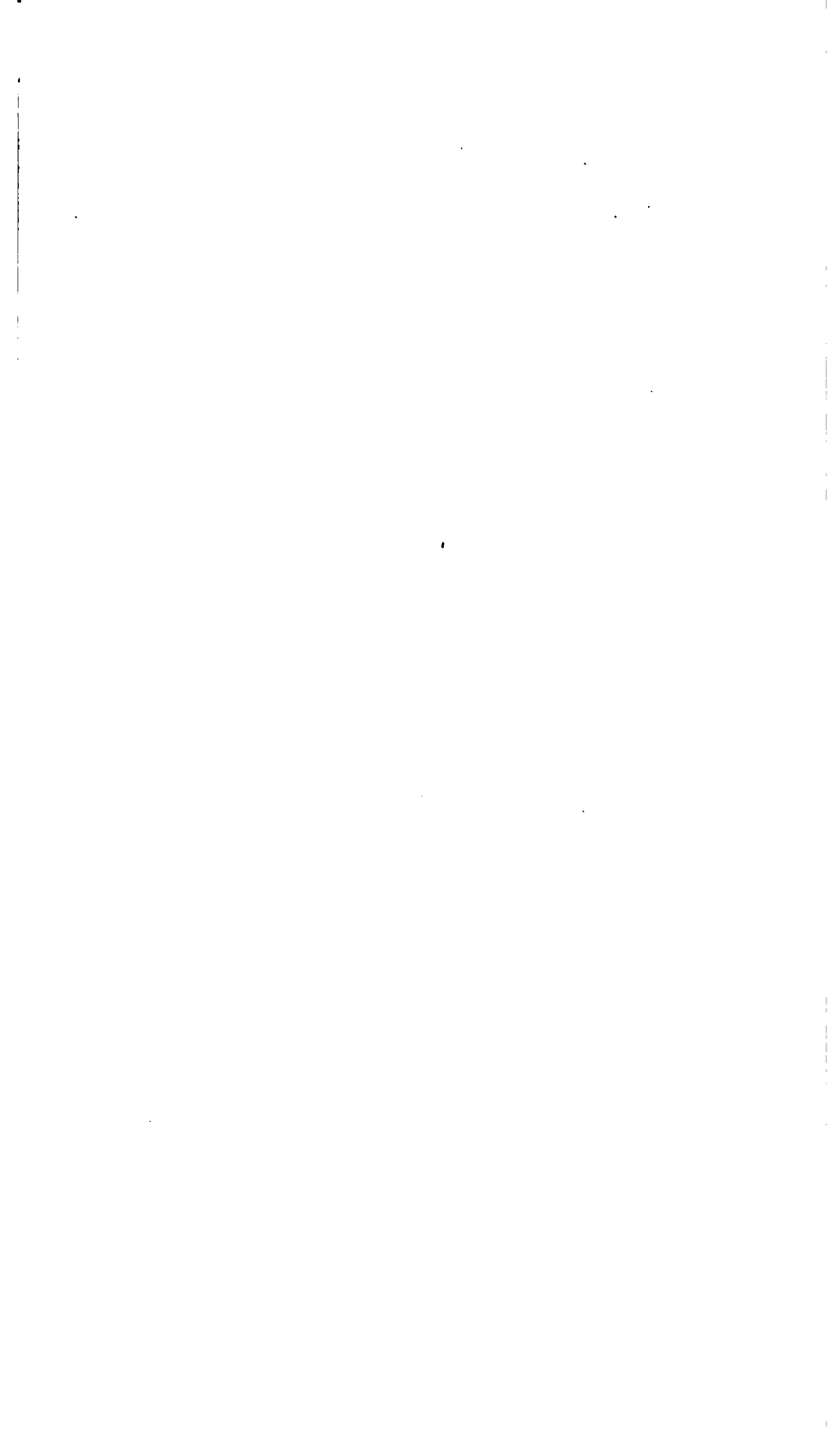
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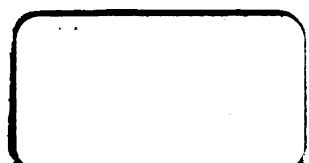
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